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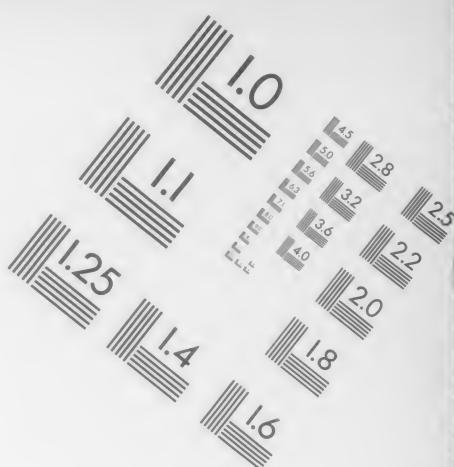
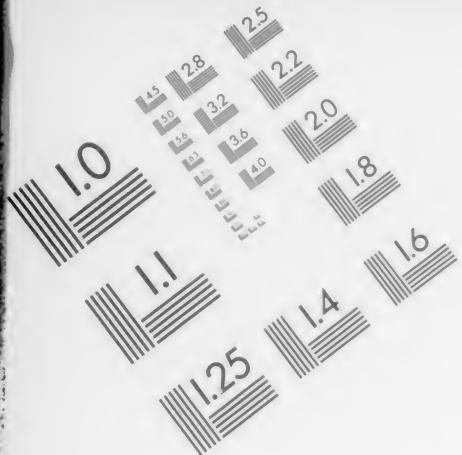


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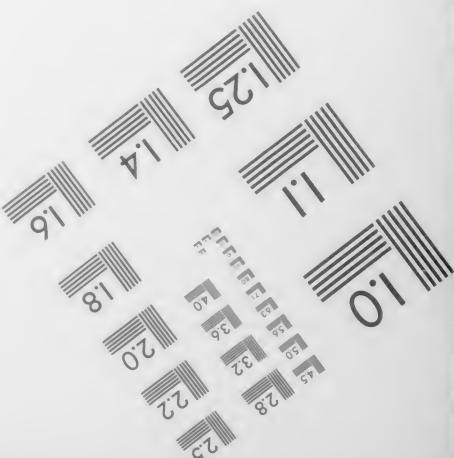
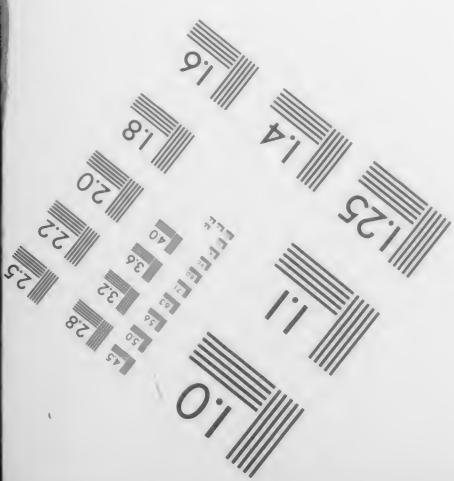
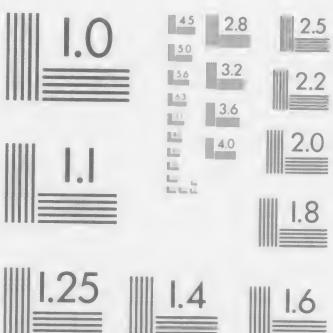
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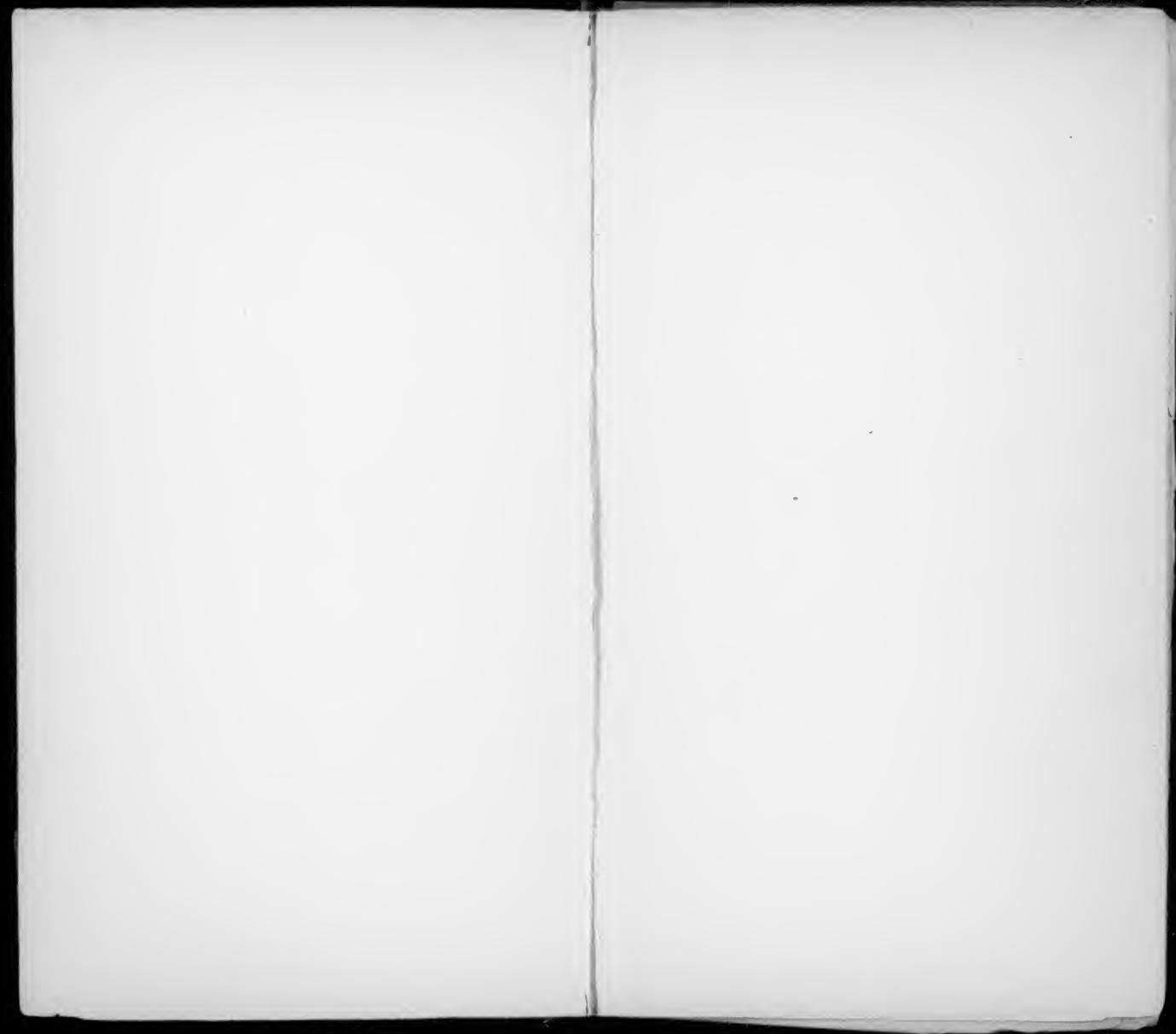
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THE FORCED AbdICATION OF HENRY IV. Page 40

PREFACE. / 3

SHOULD a want of order in the narration of events appear in this volume, the authoress would solicit the indulgence of the reader, since to relate the history of Germany in one continuous narrative, would be a task of some perplexity, on account of the numerous States into which it is divided; and the more especially, as the limits of these States, and their mode of government, have so often been changed by the variety of their interests, or by the chances of war.

The extent of the Germany of the present day is very different from that of the Germany of ancient times, when all the centre of Europe was comprehended under that name, and, like the wilds of Canada, was overgrown with forests, and only so far subdivided as it was found necessary to mark the bounds of the territories, occupied by different barbarian tribes.

From the Alps to the Baltic, and from the frontiers of Gaul to the confines of Russia, all was called Germany,



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till, by the course of time and civilisation, kingdoms and states arose from the bosom of this vast desert. These, for a long period, were all comprehended under the name of the German empire; and although each had its own sovereign, still all were under the dominion of one imperial chief.

This is no longer the case. The German empire is dissolved, and several of the States, of which it was composed, are now separate and independent kingdoms most of them of recent date.

The rise and fall of this great and powerful empire will form the subject of the following pages, which, independent of their other claims upon the attention of the reader, will possess one additional point of interest; since it is to Germany we owe the illustrious race of sovereigns who have now, for more than a century and a quarter, occupied the British throne.



Drawn & Engraved by J. Clayp.

London Published by Dean & Munday, Strand, No. 11.

THE ANCIENT GERMANS.

IN ancient times, Germany was a dreary, uncultivated country, covered with vast forests, and inhabited by numerous tribes of barbarians, whose origin is uncertain, but who are supposed to have migrated, at various periods, from different parts of Asia, bringing with them their flocks and herds, and settling on any spot that seemed to afford them the best prospect of pasture for their cattle, and game to supply themselves with flesh for food, and skins for clothing.

These tribes seem to have been of the same race as those who peopled the wilds of Scandinavia. Their language was nearly the same, they were alike ignorant of letters and useful arts; and their religion and superstitions were all of a similar character. The ancient Germans had no cities, but they built their huts wherever they found conveniences; and as it was not customary for them to dwell long in the same place, the habitations they formed were very slight, and were constructed usually in a circular form, of rough timber thatched with straw, with a hole left at the top to let out the smoke.

They had neither meadows nor orchards. A small quantity of grain was the only produce that emanated from their own industry; and they knew so little of the value or use of metals, that they prized their own rough vessels of coarse red earthenware, as much as the silver vases that were presented by the Romans to some of their princes.

The Germans, like most nations, in this first and rudest state of society, were divided into many tribes. There were the Saxons, the Goths, the Vandals, the Suevi, the Alamanni, the Franks, and a variety of other nations; all of whom are supposed to have sprung from a race called the Teutones, a band of eastern warriors that appeared in the south of Europe, about a hundred years before the Christian era; and this is the reason why every thing relating to ancient Germany is called Teutonic.

The government of the Germans had nothing to distinguish it from that of the Gauls, or of any other barbarous nation; for the first objects of government among an untutored race must naturally be to choose a chief who is able to lead them to war, and to submit the guidance of their moral conduct to their religious instructors, who thus become their lawgivers as well as priests.

The religion of the Germans was like that of the Scandinavians. They worshipped Odin as the god of war, and a great many other deities under various names and forms; while, like the Gauls, they performed their religious rites in the depths of the forests, where the sun was never seen, and scarcely a ray of light could find an entrance at noon day. The priests of the Germans were not called Druids, but they exercised as

much authority over the people as the Druids of Gaul and Britain, to whose religious ceremonies their own bore a close resemblance, as they consisted chiefly in the performance of sacrifices, and the celebration of festivals.

The national assemblies were meetings at stated seasons of all the freemen of the tribe, who repaired in arms to the place of rendezvous, always some large open space; and there the young men, who had only just arrived at an age to be permitted to bear arms, were solemnly invested with shield and spear, which they received with as much pride as the knights of chivalry in later times. In these assemblies, all questions relative to the general affairs of the tribe, were discussed, and the lands were parcelled out afresh, for the Germans had a singular custom of changing their abodes once a year, when every man gave up his farm and received a new one. The reason of this was, that nations perpetually at war with each other, were constantly liable to lose their possessions, and also to acquire new ones; and in either case it was necessary to make a new division of the land, which was always done by the chiefs, at the annual assembly, who allotted to each individual his portion of ground for the ensuing year.

Their fields were not enclosed, but the boundaries of them were defined by certain stones or other landmarks, and the disputes which arose respecting the extent of their fields, were always settled by the priests.

The Germans were remarkably tall and strong. They were much larger than any other people of Europe, and it was considered so honourable to have a great many relations, that every man was esteemed according to the numbers of which his family consisted. It was, therefore, the pride of a German warrior to be surrounded by

a numerous tribe of children and kinsfolk, because he knew that he should thus be the more respected by his fellow countrymen.

The territory of the Suevi, a single German nation, was divided into one hundred districts, and could bring two hundred thousand warriors into the field. It was the custom of this tribe to send half their men to the wars for one year, and keep the remainder at home to attend to agricultural pursuits; but when the warriors returned, they took charge of the fields for the next twelvemonth, and the farmers became soldiers, and took their turn in the wars. The labour of the fields was usually performed by slaves. They kept bees, and made mead of the honey; and besides corn, they raised oats and barley, from which they made ale, their favourite beverage.

The Germans were noted for their love of feasting, which was carried to such excess, that they would sometimes remain whole days and nights at table, drinking and gaming, in consequence of which they very often quarrelled and fought, so that a convivial meeting frequently terminated in bloodshed. The Germans did not all sit down at the same table, but each man had his own seat and board, which were of a very rough description, being merely a wooden stool and table, furnished with drinking horns, wooden bowls, spoons, and platters. Every person of rank had his servant behind him to hold his shield and spear. He kept his sword by his side, for on no occasion would a German part with his arms, which was a proof that he expected to have frequent need of them.

We are told that the wives and daughters of the Germans shared in all the public entertainments, for however

rude and fierce these people might be in other respects, they were distinguished, even in the most barbarous ages, for their attention and respect to the female sex, whom they consulted on the most important affairs, and by whose opinions they were very often guided. The feasts of the Germans, like those of the Gauls and Scandinavians, were always attended by a number of bards, several of whom were attached to the family of every chief, and were treated with the highest degree of respect. They played on the harp and flute, and when they sang of war, the company took part in the concert by clashing their swords against their shields.

When the day had thus been spent in feasting and music, and, we may suppose, the females had all retired, the men would sit up all night, drinking and playing at dice, backgammon, and other games of chance, which they pursued with such eagerness, that they would stake all they possessed, clothes, arms, horses, and even their personal freedom on a single throw, and if that were lost, the loser became a slave to the winner. Such is the folly and madness of gaming.

There were various circumstances under which a German might forfeit his liberty, such as marrying a bond-woman, or not being able to pay his debts; but the generality of the slaves were captives taken in the wars. The Germans, in very remote ages, were dressed in skins of wild animals, and afterwards, in a coarse kind of linen, made by the women for their own use; but as they intermixed more with the Gauls, they learnt from them to make a finer sort of linen, and woollen also, and as soon as they were acquainted with these useful arts, spinning and weaving became the principal occupations of German women, and a more civilised

costume was adopted than that which was made from the skins of the elk and rein deer. These animals, in the time of Julius Cæsar, were very numerous in the forests of Germany, from which, however, they have long since disappeared.

The earliest woollen garment worn by the Germans was a square blanket, called a *sagu*, thrown over the shoulders; but this, on account of its value, was worn only by the chiefs. Their vests and tunics were of linen, reaching not quite to the knee, usually ornamented with a coloured border, and fastened with a belt. Some of these garments were without sleeves; but the chiefs sometimes had sleeves, which hung as low as the knee, and extended to the wrists. The fashion of the dresses differed among different tribes. The Franks, for instance, wore long woollen mantles of the natural colour, either white or black; till having seen the striped and chequered saga of the Gauls, they were so pleased with their gaudy colours, that they discarded their own sober tints, for the red and purple that adorned their neighbours.

The Saxons had no coverings on their legs, except the lacings of their sandals; but some of the German nations, in the time of the Romans, wore tight trowsers fastened round the ankle, and short boots of untanned skins. They used neither saddles nor stirrups, and wore neither caps nor helmets; but every nation had some peculiar mode of arranging the hair, which was generally adopted with a view to add to their height and martial appearance, so as to look more formidable in the field of battle. The Saxons, of both sexes, arranged their hair in long ringlets, and men of mature age had long beards, terminating in two forked points. The common people

wore neither shoes nor stockings, their dress being merely a woollen tunic with tight sleeves. The soldiers, before the Roman invasion, used no armour, except a shield of an oval shape, sometimes of wood, and sometimes of osiers, plaited like a beehive, on which they painted figures of animals, and other devices; and as the presentation of a shield was the first mark of distinction bestowed on the German youth, so the loss of this piece of armour was accounted a great disgrace; and in such a case, no man could appear in any public assembly, not even at a religious festival. The most usual costume among females of rank, consisted of a long linen robe with loose sleeves, and a head dress of very fine texture, the ends of which were folded over the neck and bosom. Females of a lower grade would no doubt have coarse woollen garments of their own manufacture.

It has been said, that the spinners and weavers of Germany, in ancient times, used to work in caves underground; their motives for so doing have not been assigned, but probably they found that the caves were warmer than their huts; for the country, in those days, was much colder than it is now, owing to the large forests that prevented the sun from warming the earth. This is the reason why the elk, and perhaps, the reindeer, which only inhabit cold countries, were found at that period in parts of Europe where they no longer exist; for the woods have been gradually cleared away to make room for cities, and the sun's rays being no longer intercepted, give mildness to the atmosphere, and warmth to the earth.

The great Hercynian forest, parts of which are still remaining, under the name of the Black forest, was so extensive, at the period of the Roman invasion, that it

overspread a great portion of Germany and Poland, and there were many Germans who are said to have travelled in it for the space of sixty days, yet none of them could tell its limits. There were many parts of this immense forest where no human foot had ever trod; therefore, it is not surprising that the imaginations of the unenlightened and superstitious Germans should have peopled these unexplored regions with unearthly beings; and thus we are enabled to account for their popular tales of fairies, sprites, black huntsmen, and a variety of other mysterious personages, who are said to have held their revels in the Black forest during the middle ages.

FROM THE
INVASION OF THE ROMANS,
TO
CHARLEMAGNE.

In the time of Julius Cæsar, and his immediate successors, the Romans invaded and conquered a considerable part of Germany, which then comprehended all that portion of the middle of Europe which was not included in Gaul. Of these long wars I shall say nothing, except that some of the nations were wholly subdued, while others made peace, and entered into alliance with the Romans, who introduced into Germany those arts of civilisation for which most European countries were

indebted to them. The Roman soldiers, when not engaged in fighting, cleared away many of the woods to make corn fields, and meadows for pasture. They formed new roads, built good towns, erected fortifications, and taught the Germans how to improve their mode of agriculture, to plant orchards and vineyards, and to avail themselves of many useful arts, the knowledge of which enabled them to furnish their houses in better style, and to dress with more taste and elegance.

It was from the Romans, no doubt, that the Germans learnt the art of embroidery, for which the Saxon ladies became so celebrated, for we are told that after the arrival of the Romans, the Germans adorned their tunics and mantles with flowered borders, and the ladies embroidered their robes with purple.

Among the cities built by the Romans, were Cologne and Cleves, the former of which was their metropolis, as long as they remained masters of the country. Mentz, Worms, and Spire, also arose from Roman stations, and not less than fifty castles were built on the banks of the Rhine.

From the time of Julius Cæsar to the fall of the Roman empire, a period of more than four hundred years, the greater part of the Germans were governed by Roman laws, and were kept in subjection by a military force; but the wars never entirely ceased, and as the power of the Roman empire declined, the Germans gradually recovered their liberty, and became conquerors in their turn.

Of all the German nations at this period, the Franks and Saxons claim our principal attention, the former as having been the founders of the French monarchy, and the latter, of the race from which many of ourselves

are descended. The Franks were divided into two great confederations, the Salians and the Ripuarians. Clovis was king of the Salian Franks, and instituted the Salic laws so famed in history, and composed by four of the wisest men among the Franks, previous to their having left their home on the banks of the Rhine.

The Saxons inhabited that part of Germany which is now the duchy of Holstein; but after the Franks had departed into Gaul, they gradually extended their possessions as far as what is now the kingdom of Hanover; and they were powerful enough, in the fifth century, to conquer England, and fill it with people from their own country, which was still sufficiently populous to keep possession of immense territories; so that in the eighth century, it cost Charlemagne, and his vast armies, several years of hard fighting, before he could subdue them.

The Alamanni formed another great tribe, and were the same people, who, in the middle ages, were called the Swabians. At this time, when Clovis conquered Gaul, most of the Germans were Pagans; but before the time of Charlemagne, there came missionaries from Ireland and England to preach the Christian religion, and among them, St. Boniface, who is called the apostle of Germany, on account of the number of persons he converted from their idolatrous worship.

St. Boniface was a great benefactor to the country, as he founded several monasteries, and taught the monks to plant vineyards and gardens, and to drain their land, so that it might produce a plentiful supply of corn for their own maintenance, as well as enable them to exercise the duties of hospitality towards strangers.

Society in Germany, at this period, consisted of four classes; nobles, freemen, freedmen, and slaves. The

great nobles were the dukes of the provinces, who usually lived in spacious dwellings, often in forests, surrounded by numerous trains of warlike dependents, who were ready to take the field at their command. These great dukes or barons lived in a manner far superior to that of the ancient Germans, for they had regular officers of the household, and even cooks, who understood the art of making various dishes, that were unknown in the more remote times.

The ancient bards were now extinct, and their places were supplied by jesters, jugglers, and gleemen, as at the courts of the Saxon kings of England. The German nobles were constantly at war with each other, and many of them lived by plunder, sallying forth from their forests at the head of their retainers, to pillage the surrounding country, and carry off all that fell in their way, which often furnished them with materials for a feast; and as they inherited the passion of their ancestors for good eating and drinking, they were not very scrupulous in appropriating to themselves the ale and wine of their neighbours.

The second class of society among the Germans consisted of the freemen, who were all soldiers, in the service of the nobles, and many of them held land for their services, according to the feudal laws, which had their origin in Germany. The freemen scorned trade and agriculture, looking upon these as ignoble pursuits, fit only for slaves, or freedmen.

The freedmen were those who had once been slaves, but had obtained their freedom either by purchase, or by the favour of their masters, who sometimes, from religious motives, or as a reward for some particular service, gave them their liberty. The freedmen were

permitted to carry arms, and had other rights that the serfs had not; but still they were not upon an equality with those who were born free, therefore, they were often mechanics, and exercised trades which the free-men disdained, and as early as the time of Clovis, there were smiths, carpenters, shoemakers, gold and silver-smiths, and other artisans, dwelling in most of the towns of Germany. The towns at this period were only inhabited by the meaner classes of people, the free Germans preferring to dwell in their forests.

The condition of the slaves varied much, some of them being household servants, others cultivators of the land. The former were in a happier position than the latter, for they were treated with greater kindness, and as they formed a part of the family, and not of the estate, they were not bought and sold with the land, like a herd of cattle, which was the case with the agricultural serfs.

The laws of Germany were very similar to those in use among all uncivilised nations. Fines were the usual punishment for all crimes, the amount being regulated according to the rank of the offender, or the injured party. Theft seems to have been a very common crime, for there was scarcely a single article of property that could possibly be stolen, which was not mentioned in the laws, with the fine for stealing it specified. Cows, sheep, pigs, poultry, and every thing belonging to a farm yard, had a fixed price; and if any one should steal such property, he was obliged, if discovered, to pay this sum to the loser.

In the same manner we may judge of the ferocity of the dispositions among the ancient Germans, by the fines attached to personal injuries, for if they had not been frequently guilty of cutting off one another's noses,

ears, and fingers, the legislators would never have thought of settling how much money should be paid as a compensation to the person thus mutilated.

Slaves, who had no property, and consequently could pay no fines, were always punished by stripes. All causes were tried in the open air, by the dukes, or others appointed for that purpose, whose judgment-seat was under a tree, or on the summit of a hill; and the accused had various means allowed them of proving their innocence, the most usual being the trial by ordeal, and the trial by single combat; and in some cases, a man was acquitted, if twelve others were willing to swear that they believed him to be innocent, a custom that is supposed to be the origin of the English trial by jury. It is worthy of remark that some of our best laws and legal regulations, even at the present day, may be traced to the customs of barbarous nations.

CHARLEMAGNE.

771 TO 814.

WHEN Charlemagne ascended the throne of France, the Saxons occupied the whole of the north of Germany, which they had divided into several small kingdoms, each governed by its own prince, like the seven kingdoms of England which composed the Saxon heptarchy. It was the ambition of Charlemagne to extend his power and dominion, and to spread the Christian religion

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throughout Europe; and, in pursuance of these designs, he entered the country of the Saxons with his vast armies, and, for many years, carried on a cruel warfare with those brave people.

During this war, he fixed his abode at the castle of Schelstadt, on the banks of the Rhine, and wherever he gained a victory, he pulled down all the Pagan temples, destroyed the idols, and compelled the people to be baptized, putting to death all who refused. The great conqueror seemed to think, that in forcing men to receive the rite of baptism, he converted them into Christians, forgetting that a ceremony forced upon them by the fear of death, did not change their hearts.

For a long time, the Saxons defended themselves with determined bravery, led on by their chief Witikind, a hero renowned in the annals of the Saxon nation, and as long as there remained the least chance of preserving their liberty, the barbarian patriot animated his countrymen to persevere in their resistance; but when all hope had fled, and the Franks had conquered one province after another, till they had become masters of so much of the country, that it was useless to hold out any longer, then Witikind laid down his arms, and submitted to receive the rite of baptism. Still there were many among the Saxons who would neither profess the Christian faith, nor consent to be governed by a foreign prince, and these fled to Denmark and Norway, where they joined the pirates of those countries; and probably Witikind did so too, for he is not again mentioned; but from one of his descendants, Count Walburg, comes the present family of Oldenburg, now reigning in Denmark; therefore, Witikind was an ancestor of the present Danish king.

After the final overthrow of the Saxons, Charlemagne was guilty of an act of cruelty, that has stained his otherwise brilliant name with everlasting reproach. When the wars were ended, and he found that the Saxons did not universally adopt the Christian faith, he caused four thousand prisoners to be brought to the side of a river, where, being forced to kneel on the bank, their heads were all struck off into the water. It would be difficult to believe that a prince famed for so many great and good qualities, could be guilty of such barbarity, were not the fact too well attested to admit of a doubt, and we are forced to admit that the great Charlemagne was not free from the barbarism of the age in which he lived, although he possessed virtues that raised him above most of his contemporaries.

By his victories over the Saxons, Charlemagne, who was already master of the greater portion of Italy, extended his dominion over nearly the whole of Germany also; but there were some states that still retained their own king and form of government, as Bohemia, Moravia, Hungary, and Sclavonia, which, however, owned his supremacy, and paid him tribute. To keep the Sclavonians in check, he built two strong castles on the banks of the Elbe, one of which was called Hamburg, and gave birth to the famous city of that name.

As soon as the conqueror had fully established his authority over the vast empire he had gained, he took the precaution of weakening the Germans, so as to prevent them from forming confederacies, by transplanting many thousands of families from their native villages to various parts of Gaul and Italy; and then he went to Rome, where he was crowned emperor by Pope Leo the Third, who also bestowed upon him the title of king of the Romans.

Charlemagne built a great many churches and monasteries in Germany, which, from that time, may be considered a Christian country. These monasteries had gardens and fields attached to them, where the monks cultivated vegetables, fruit, and corn, for their own consumption. Many of them had broad lands with a numerous tenantry, out of which they were obliged to furnish to the state a certain number of warriors, well armed and mounted, whenever the emperor required their services. Such abbeys as were not rich enough to do this, were only expected to contribute money towards the wars; and those monks who were so poor that they could neither furnish the sovereign with men nor money, were enjoined to put up prayers daily for his success.

Charlemagne was in the habit of moving his court from one place to another, hoping, by his occasional presence, to keep the nobles in check; but this was a heavy tax on the peasantry, because, in accordance with the cruel and unjust policy of the times, wherever he came, they were compelled to furnish provisions for the whole court, as well as forage for the horses.

As long as the emperor remained in a province, he was treated by the princes and nobles with the utmost respect, and they refrained from their usual depredations; but as soon as he was gone, the laws were again broken, private warfare was resumed, and the most daring robberies were committed, even on the royal domains, although they were constantly kept guarded.

We have seen, in the History of France, that Charlemagne was a great patron of learning and commerce. The intercourse that subsisted between him and the renowned Caliph Haroun Alraschid, was the means of introducing into Germany many luxuries that had, till then,

been entirely unknown; such as spices, perfumes, and silks, that were brought first to France, and then carried up the Rhine into Germany. It is interesting and curious to trace the progress of refinement, which is entirely owing to the intercourse of different nations with each other, without which they must all have remained in a state of barbarism, as every country requires the produce of others to supply its own deficiencies, or arts and manufactures could not be improved and gradually brought to perfection.

In the days of Charlemagne, there were vast multitudes of serfs in France and Germany employed in agriculture, spinning, weaving, and various handicraft arts. The celebrated Alcuin, a learned Englishman, who went to the court of the emperor as ambassador from Offa, king of Mercia, had no less than twenty thousand serfs on his lands, therefore, it is evident the emperor was very liberal to him. On all the royal domains in Germany, a governor, or steward, was appointed in each district to overlook the employment of the slaves, and assign them their tasks. It was his duty to distribute to the women the wool and flax which they were to spin, to take account of all the cloth that was made, and of all the corn that was ground at the mill; for the emperor had a mill on each of his estates, as well as the barons, and this was one source of the royal revenue.

The Germans were indebted for many improvements in their domestic comforts, to their adoption of the Christian religion, which brought them into familiar intercourse with Rome, where everything that was scarce and elegant might be seen and obtained. The Pope and chief clergy of Rome used to send embroidered robes, choice perfumes, and costly furniture to their

friends in Germany; and although presents of this kind were made only to princes and nobles, yet their introduction into the country helped to refine the taste of the people in general, by making them sensible of the difference between their own rough usages and the polished customs of the Italians.

Among the presents made to some of the German princes, were silken hangings for rooms, beautifully embroidered with gold. The apartments of the great were usually hung with tapestry, for in those early times, the carpenters were not very skilful, so that the walls were full of crevices, and required hangings to keep out the wind. The furniture was rude and clumsy, consisting of large oaken tables, stools, and benches; whilst the floors were strewed with rushes. It is probable they had feather beds, for in the time of the Romans, German geese used to be driven in large flocks to Rome, because their feathers were preferred to those of any other bird. The Germans, in the time of Charlemagne, used table cloths; and the rich had silver cups, and horns curiously ornamented with gold; and, sometimes, silver dishes; but those who were not wealthy, confined themselves to the old wooden table furniture.

Hunting and hawking were the favourite sports of all the nobility; and even of the clergy; for as the bishops and abbots joined in the wars, they were equally fitted for enjoying the chase. Ladies, too, rode on horseback in the train of the hunters; and after witnessing the sport, were generally regaled with a banquet, spread in tents under the trees.

Men of rank still dressed in linen tunics and vests, with tight sleeves, and a border round the neck, a short mantle was fastened to their shoulders, their trowsers

descended below the knee, and they wore stockings and shoes. The common people wore loose coats of woollen, put over the head like a shirt, and fastened with a belt; some of them wore shoes or sandals, but none wore stockings. The nobles adorned themselves with bracelets and chains of costly workmanship, so that their ornaments are described as more valuable than those of the other sex, which it is very likely they were, as they would, of course, be more massive.

The Saxon women dyed their linen garments with light gaudy colours, either red, blue, or green. Very few wore white; and very often, the under dress, the upper robe, and the head dress, or veil, were all of different hues; a very general taste among people in an uncivilised state of society, who are always pleased with that which is most varied and striking to the eye.

FROM

THE DEATH OF CHARLEMAGNE,

TO THE COMMENCEMENT OF

THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

814 TO 912.

THE greatness of Charlemagne's empire expired with its founder, whose grandsons, by dividing his vast dominions among them, formed three sovereignties out

of one, and weakened them all by their wars with each other. The history of Germany, for the next hundred years, presents one uninterrupted scene of confusion, owing to the unsettled state of the government, and the incapacity of Charlemagne's successors, not one of whom had sufficient talent to keep in subjection the fierce barons, who had scarcely submitted to the control of the great conqueror himself, and were not, therefore, likely to acknowledge the authority of the weak princes who succeeded him.

The country, at this time, consisted of six separate states or provinces, each governed by a duke, who was, in reality, the absolute sovereign of his own domain. Next in rank to the dukes, were the counts, some of whom were called margraves, whose duty it was to guard the frontiers of the different states; whilst others, who were called landgraves, were bound to defend the interior of the province, whenever it was invaded. All these counts were vassals of the duke, but generally lived in their own castles, where they maintained a numerous train of dependents, who were as regardless of the laws as they were themselves.

There was another class of nobles called burgraves, but they were not more orderly than the rest, frequently converting the abodes set apart for the residence of the emperor whenever he chose to visit them, into strongholds for troops of banditti; for the train of a German nobleman, at that period, was neither more nor less than a band of robbers, of which the nobleman himself was the chief.

The six states of Germany were Saxony, Bavaria, Swabia, Franconia, Thuringia, and Lorraine, which were like so many rival kingdoms, perpetually at war with

each other; and besides the six dukes of these provinces, who were the great feudatories, there were the kings of Burgundy, Provence, and Moravia, and the duke of Bohemia, all vassals of the crown.

The emperors, however, did not reap much advantage from vassals who set their authority at open defiance, and rode about the country with bands of armed ruffians, who not only robbed people of their property, but seized on priests and ladies of rank, whom they carried away to their castles, and detained in prison, till their friends paid large sums for their ransom. It was not uncommon for these lawless barons to take off, by force, the daughters of rich noblemen, and marry them, in order to obtain the property to which they were entitled. No one ventured to travel, even in the day time, without a strong escort; and even thus guarded, it was seldom that travellers were not attacked in the forests, or among the passes of the mountains.

Such was the state of Germany, from the death of Charlemagne till the time of Charles the Fat, who was deposed, as related in the History of France; and then the crown of Germany was given by some of the princes of that country to Arnulf, duke of Bohemia, from which time, the nobles of Germany assumed the right of electing their own emperors.

Bohemia, which formed a part of the German empire, was, at this period, in a state of barbarism, and inhabited by tribes of Selavonians, who were equally warlike and uncivilised. Arnulf, however, was chosen emperor, in preference to any other prince, because he was of the family of Charlemagne; and as soon as he was raised to this high dignity, he bestowed his duchy of Bohemia on a prince named Zwentibold, who was not very grateful

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for the favour, as he aspired to be an independent sovereign, instead of a vassal prince. He, therefore, rebelled against the successor of Arnulf, who made an alliance with the Huns, a tribe of savages from the east, who had long been hovering about the country, watching for an opportunity of making a successful attack upon some part of it.

They, therefore, very readily assisted the emperor against Bohemia; but having once gained access to that duchy, they seized on a large portion of it for themselves, together with a part of Moravia, where they settled, and founded the kingdom of Hungary.

This war was all that occurred of much importance after the death of Arnulf. He was succeeded by his son, Louis the Third; but as that prince died unmarried, the Carlovingian race became extinct in Germany, in the year 912.

EMPERORS

OF

THE HOUSE OF SAXONY.

812 TO 1024.

FROM the period when the last prince of the house of Charlemagne died, is generally dated the beginning of the German empire, as it was only then that it was

finally separated from France, and that the government passed into the hands of German sovereigns, who were, in future, to be chosen from among the native dukes.

When a new emperor was to be elected, a diet, or assembly of nobles, clergy, and freemen, met for that purpose; and if more than one prince was proposed, the choice fell upon him who had most voices in his favour. The actual electors were only seven in number, but as it would not have been very easy for them to elect a sovereign against the wishes of the armed multitudes that were present on the occasion, it may be said that the emperors were chosen with the consent of the people.

The German empire, at this time, comprised, besides the states before-mentioned, Holland, Flanders, Switzerland, and the duchy of Holstein, the latter held in fief by the king of Denmark. It was a very arduous task to undertake the government of territories that were so extensive, and where there were so many unruly princes to be kept in subjection; therefore, Otho, the duke of Saxony, to whom the crown was first offered, declined it, on the plea that he was a very old man, and did not feel equal to the cares of state; but with singular generosity, he accompanied his refusal with a recommendation to the electors to choose Conrad, the duke of Franconia, although he was his enemy.

In consequence of this advice, Conrad was elected, much to the dissatisfaction of Henry, the son of the aged Otho, who thought, perhaps, that though his father was too old, the same objection did not apply to him, therefore, he opposed the election of Conrad; and when his father died, and he became duke of Saxony, he went openly to war with the emperor; and it was not

till some of the other princes interfered as mediators, that peace was restored between them.

Conrad did not reign long, having been mortally wounded in a battle with the Huns; and when he was dying, he imitated the generous conduct of his former rival Otho, by recommending as his successor, Henry of Saxony, who, being the most powerful prince of the empire, was the fittest, said the dying emperor, to be at its head.

Henry the First, who was elected emperor in the year 919, was called the Fowler, because he took much delight in falconry, or the hunting of birds, and was seldom seen without a hawk or falcon on his wrist. The robberies and disorders that had disgraced the times of the Carlovian princes, still continued; for the late emperor did not live long enough to take any means of suppressing them, and the few years during which he occupied the throne, were spent in warfare; but Henry the Fowler was not engaged in any wars, and all his attention was directed towards bringing the country into a more orderly state.

He did not attempt to accomplish this desirable object by severity, for that he knew would only increase the evil he was anxious to remedy; but his plan was to induce those who now lived by plunder, to alter their mode of life; and to enable them to do so, he found them an employment that was suited to their taste, and detached them from their habits of marauding. He combined them into armies for the purpose of protecting the frontiers from the Huns and other barbarous tribes, from the shores of the Baltic sea; and as an inducement for them to join in this service, he promised pardon to all offenders who chose to engage in it; by this wise

measure, he converted many bands of lawless marauders into useful subjects of the empire.

It is not to be supposed that all the lesser nobles availed themselves of this decree, but a great number of them did; so that the evil, though not wholly remedied, was materially decreased.

It was of great importance, in these unsettled times, that the emperor should have a powerful military force at his command; therefore, a law was made, that all youths should be trained to martial exercises; and to render them the more expert with their weapons, games were instituted, of the same nature as tournaments, the chief difference consisting in their not being held with the pomp and ceremony of later times.

By another regulation, it was enacted, that the eldest son of every family should be furnished, at the expense of his family, with a horse and arms, and be always ready to obey the summons of the emperor, who thus had, in fact, an army of young active men always in readiness, without the cost of maintaining them; and in case of war, it was ordained that every person holding land, should furnish a certain quantity of corn for the soldiers. By all these regulations, the emperor increased his authority, but he still found it impossible to prevent the nobles from carrying on private warfare, because they regarded the right of doing so, as one of their greatest privileges, and would not give it up.

I have told you how Henry the Fowler suppressed the banditti, and provided for the defence of his empire against foreign invasion, or internal rebellion; but I have now to speak of the manner in which he laid the foundation of its future wealth and importance, by giving rise to the order of citizens, which, at this period, did

not exist in Germany. The Germans, as I before observed, had a great dislike to living in towns, which they considered much the same as degrading themselves to a level with mechanics; (for we must remember that in those days, every employment, except that of a soldier, was thought degrading,) but the emperor was so fully convinced of the advantages of fortified cities, that he had walls built round them, and promised great privileges to all persons who would fix their abode within the walls.

Among these privileges, it was ordained, that no citizen should be subject to a feudal lord; that the nobles and clergy residing in towns should have the right of establishing fairs and markets; of holding diets or councils for the government of their respective cities, and of coining money; yet with all this encouragement, it was a long time before the prejudice against dwelling in cities wore away, and they continued to be occupied chiefly by mechanics, and the soldiers of the garrison. The inhabitants were not allowed to have arms for their own defence, therefore, where there was no garrison, the townspeople were usually placed under the protection of the bishop, who was bound to protect them from injury. We shall presently see how the citizens gradually rose into the most respectable and most influential part of the community.

Henry the Fowler has been reckoned the greatest prince of his age, although he was contemporary with Athelstan of England, and Abderrahman the Third of Cordova. He died in the year 936, when the diet of election was immediately assembled at Aix-la-Chapelle. In this town, there was a magnificent cathedral built by

Charlemagne, in which the emperors of Germany were always crowned.

The choice now fell upon Otho, duke of Saxony, the eldest son of Henry the Fowler, and his coronation was performed with extraordinary splendour. His reign was very eventful, and by some, he was regarded as a more glorious prince than his father, insomuch that he was surnamed the Great; but his renown was gained chiefly by warlike acts, which are always more brilliant than useful.

In the early part of his reign, there were rebellions among the great nobles, which he had a great deal of trouble to suppress, and scarcely had tranquillity been restored in Germany, when the king of Bohemia, who was his vassal, declared himself an independent sovereign, and abolished the Christian religion in his kingdom, he being himself a pagan. The Bohemian war lasted nearly fourteen years; but Otho was, in the end, victorious, and compelled this still barbarous people to acknowledge his authority, as also to admit again the Christian worship into the country; but the greater part of the people remained in their idolatrous faith.

While this war was going on, the Hungarians made frequent incursions into the German states, but they at last sustained so severe a defeat on the plain of Dortmund in Westphalia, that they were compelled to keep quiet for a long time afterwards. But the principal events of the reign of Otho the Great regarded the affairs of Italy, as I am now about to relate.

In the time of Charlemagne, Italy had formed a part of the great empire, which owned him for its sovereign prince; and it remained in the possession of his family, till Charles the Fat was deposed, after which it was governed by native princes; but as there were fre-

quent contentions among them for the possession of the crown, the country was never in a very peaceable state.

About the time that Otho was made emperor of Germany, it happened that Lothaire, the King of Italy, died, leaving a young and beautiful queen, named Adelaide. Now there were many princes who wished to marry this lady, because such an alliance would be the almost certain means of raising to the throne him who should be fortunate enough to obtain her hand; but she refused all who tried to win her favour, and among others the son of a proud nobleman, named Berenger; who, partly from ambition, and partly to revenge the slight received by his son, seized on the throne, and confined Adelaide in a castle.

The young queen, who had heard of the valour of Otho, contrived to convey to him a message, offering him her hand and the crown of Italy, if he would come to her aid; on which the emperor set out with all speed at the head of a powerful army, rescued the queen, and dethroned Berenger; to whom however he generously restored his dominions, on condition that he should hold them in vassalage of the empire.

Berenger promised to do so; and Otho, now the husband of Adelaide, recrossed the Alps with his beautiful bride; but no sooner had he departed, than Berenger disowned his authority, and acted in so tyrannical a manner, that the Pope wrote to the emperor, requesting he would return to release the people from the power of their oppressor. This request was granted, Berenger was once more dethroned; and Otho himself was crowned king of the Romans.

It was thus that Italy once more became attached to

the German empire, but it was an acquisition that proved a misfortune in after times, as we shall find. It was Otho the Great who formed the Palatinate of the Rhine, the princes of which were so powerful in later times. The counts palatine were originally officers belonging to the palace, but in course of time the duties belonging to the title ceased; so that, at this period, the palatinate was merely an empty dignity, without any real advantages attached to it; and there was only one nobleman who bore the title of palatine.

As the palatinate, however, was considered a high dignity, it was valued accordingly; and its existing possessor having joined in some rebellion, the emperor took away from him this mark of distinction, and bestowed it on a son of the Duke of Bavaria, together with some lands and castles on the banks of the Rhine, whence he assumed the title of Count Palatine of the Rhine; and his successors making large acquisitions by marriage, purchase, and conquest, a large province was formed, called the Palatinate.

Otho also created other counts palatine, who were inferior to him of the Rhine, but they had great authority, each being the chief magistrate and judge in his own district, and presiding over the provincial diet in the absence of the duke. The palatine also collected the royal revenues, and superintended the royal domains, which were very extensive. On every royal manor was a castle for the accommodation of the emperor and his court; and all these castles were still under the wardenship of the burgraves, who were always noblemen, and sometimes became princes of the empire.

Germany was greatly enriched, during this reign, by the opening of the silver mines in the Hartz mountains,

which were accidentally discovered by a peasant, in consequence of having tied his horse to a tree which caused the animal to strike the ground violently with his hoof, and in so doing, he raised up some of the metal. The emperor was not long in profiting by so valuable a discovery, and he built, near the mines, the town of Goslar; probably for the residence of the miners, and those who were entrusted to superintend their labours.

Otho the Great died in 973, and was succeeded by his own son, Otho the Second; who, during his father's life, had been crowned king of the Romans, a ceremony implying that he was elected to succeed to the imperial throne; still as the electors chose to retain their right of choosing their own sovereigns, they did not suffer a prince to be crowned emperor without assembling, and electing him in due form.

In the meantime the Romans, anxious to free themselves from the government of the German emperors, had formed a conspiracy for the purpose of establishing a republic. This conspiracy was discovered by Otho, who took such a cruel revenge, that he obtained the surname of the Sanguinary, a shocking title for a prince to bear. Pretending that he knew nothing of the plot, he invited all the chief Roman nobles to a banquet, to which they came without the least suspicion of treachery; but while they were at table, he suddenly rose from his seat and made a signal, on which the room was instantly filled with armed men, to the infinite terror of the guests; which was not diminished, as you may suppose, when the emperor unfolded a paper, and began to read aloud the names of those who were concerned in the plot, and as the name of each was

pronounced, the unfortunate victim was dragged from the table, and strangled before his eyes. It is said, that the cruel monarch then sat down to eat and drink with the rest of his visitors, who dared not express their horror of what had taken place; but we may conclude, they had not much appetite for the feast.

Not long afterwards, Otho conducted his troops into the south of Italy, to recover Calabria from the Saracens and Greeks, who had taken possession of that part of the country. His army was composed partly of Germans, and partly of Italians, the latter of whom, in revenge for the treatment of the noblemen at Rome, went over to the enemy on the eve of an engagement, and fought with the Saracens against the Germans. The latter were cut off almost to a man, the emperor himself escaping alone, and with great difficulty, to the sea shore, where he got on board a vessel which put out to sea immediately.

The vessel, however, having been captured by pirates, Otho would certainly have been carried away into slavery, had he not managed to throw himself into the sea, and save his life and liberty by swimming. The rest of his reign was spent in wars with the Bohemians, and other nations bordering on the German states.

He died in 983, when his son Otho the Third, a boy of twelve years of age, was elected Emperor. At the time when Otho the Second ascended the throne, his election was opposed by his cousin Henry, Duke of Bavaria, who was in consequence, deprived of his fief, which was bestowed on the Duke of Swabia; and thus two powerful duchies were united. Henry, with the assistance of Harold, King of Denmark, had made an attempt to recover his dominions, in which he did not

succeed; but when Otho died, and the young prince was elected, he usurped the regency, and repossessed himself of his Duchy of Bavaria.

Otho the Third was a prince of great ability, but he took more interest in the affairs of Italy, than in those of Germany; and the only event of his reign that need be here noticed, was the erection of Poland into a kingdom. Poland had hitherto been governed by dukes, subject to the Emperors of Germany, and its inhabitants were quite an uncivilised race of people, differing little from the Bohemians. The present duke, however, though a barbarian prince, had the reputation of being gifted with extraordinary talents; and so great was his fame, that the emperor made a journey into Poland on purpose to pay him a visit; and was so much pleased with his reception, and the noble deportment of the duke, that he raised the duchy to the rank of a kingdom, though under vassalage to him, and bestowed on Boleslas, the regal title.

Otho the Third reigned nineteen years, and was succeeded by Henry, duke of Bavaria, the son of the late regent, and the last emperor of the House of Saxony. Henry was a good prince, but his reign was not happy; for, in the first place, the new king of Poland would not pay his tribute, nor perform his duties as a vassal prince, because he wanted to make Poland an independent kingdom.

This rebellious conduct led to several years of warfare; during which Boleslas deposed the duke of Bohemia, and made himself master of that country, and also invaded Prussia. The Prussians were at this time a barbarous nation, dwelling in deserts between Poland and the Baltic. In the time of the Romans they were

called the Aestii, and were famous for their trade in amber, which they obtained by diving in the sea, and sold in large quantities to the Romans, who used it chiefly for drinking cups.

These people were very little more civilized at this period than they were in those earlier times, but they were of a warlike character, and defended their country with great resolution against its invaders. There was so much warfare in the country, that the emperor, being a man of a peaceable and pious turn of mind, grew heartily tired of a station in which it was impossible for him to enjoy a moment's repose; therefore he would have given up his crown, and entered a monastery, had not some of the bishops persuaded him that it was his duty to remain at the head of the State, to which he reluctantly consented; and continued emperor till his death, which happened in the year 1024.

The House of Saxony, which began with Henry the Fowler, ended with Henry the Second, who left no children; and the sovereignty of the empire passed to the House of Franconia, commencing with Conrad the Second. But here we will pause to take a survey of the state of Germany in the tenth and eleventh centuries.

GERMANY,

IN THE TENTH AND ELEVENTH CENTURIES.

THE feudal system in Germany had now attained to its greatest height, whereas in England it was only in

its infancy, for this was about the time when Canute the Dane was reigning in England; and we hardly consider the feudal system to have commenced before the time of William the Conqueror; so that the Germans were considerably in advance.

Great improvements had taken place in the general condition of society in Germany, for the cities had made considerable progress towards wealth and importance; trade was beginning to flourish; and, more than all, the chains which had held in bondage so large a portion of the community, were gradually loosening, and the blessing of freedom was extending itself far and wide.

The cities of Germany were of three classes. The first class comprehended the free, or imperial cities, which were those built on the royal domains, founded by Henry the Fowler, and endowed with particular privileges, granted by him and succeeding emperors.

The next class consisted of the ducal towns, built by the dukes on their domains, and subject to feudal laws, from which the imperial towns were exempted. The ducal cities were inhabited by the vassals of the duke, who exercised the rights of a feudal superior over them. The vassals could not remove at pleasure; they were subject to whatever taxes the duke imposed; they could not give their children in marriage, nor dispose of their property, without his sanction; and he was entitled to a share of all profits made by trade of every kind; therefore, you may judge that the inhabitants of the ducal towns were not so well off as those of the imperial cities.

In the latter, however, the people were not free to do exactly as they pleased with regard to marriage, as the emperor had the right of disposing of all the sons and daughters of the chief citizens at his pleasure; and, of

course, he must have had an interest in so doing; for it is not to be supposed he would have troubled himself about it, if it had not been to his advantage in some way. For instance, a man might bind himself to perform certain services, or to give a certain sum of money to the royal treasury, provided the emperor would consent to his union with the heiress of some rich citizen; and then the emperor would signify to the father of the lady, that it was his will that his daughter should take such a person for her husband.

This right, however, was not exercised by the emperor in so arbitrary a manner, as it was by the dukes in their towns; for they almost always made it a matter of profit; while the emperor, in most cases, gave his consent when it was applied for; and as soon as the marriage was fixed, a herald paraded the streets, proclaiming that the daughter of a certain citizen was betrothed to the son of another citizen, and having thus made the matter public, the ceremony was performed on that day twelvemonth.

It was customary for a great number of guests to be present at the wedding, when each was expected to present the young couple with some gift; either gold, silver, horses, or oxen. The bride always received a dowry from her husband on the day after they were married. This was an invariable custom, the value of the gift being regulated according to his means and station in life, and this gift was generally placed in the hands of her friends, as a provision in case of his death.

The third class of cities was composed of those on the church lands, over which the bishops had the sole authority; who being, in general, more indulgent than the nobles, their citizens had little to complain of.

though they were not in the enjoyment of as many privileges as the burghers of the free cities.

The German merchants carried on a considerable trade with the English, and sent a great many ships to London, which were obliged to pay a toll at Billingsgate before they were allowed to land their goods. The toll for every ship was two grey cloths, and one of brown, most likely cloaks; ten pounds of pepper, which was then a rarity; five pairs of gloves, and two vessels of vinegar. Gloves seem to have been made in Germany at that time, but not England. There were fairs and markets held in all the principal German towns; but no person was allowed to keep a shop, or to carry on trade, unless qualified by certain conditions, as is the case in London at the present time. Those who were not qualified, that is, persons not free of the city, were obliged to have their shops outside the walls, and they were only permitted to carry on the inferior trades.

The citizens had begun to associate themselves into guilds or companies, but they had not yet obtained the privilege of arming in their own defence, or of choosing their own magistrates. As to the serfs, their condition was very much improved all over the country. The influence of religion had done much towards bettering their lot, for the clergy taught that it was an act of piety to emancipate slaves, and, in many instances, gave freedom to their own serfs, as an example to others; so that, on church lands, there were very few men in bondage.

Another cause which contributed towards the diminution of slavery, was, an enactment by which every serf was allowed a small portion of the profits of his labour, with the right of buying his freedom, when he had saved up money enough to do so: a law that produced

a wonderful change in the habits and feelings of this oppressed and degraded class of the community, as it not only stimulated their industry, but gave them a degree of importance in their own eyes, as well as in the eyes of others. They had an object to live for.—They were not excluded, as formerly, from the right which all men ought to have, of employing their industry for their own advantage, and that of their families.

When a bondman obtained his freedom he usually went to live in one of the towns subject to his lord, for he was still a vassal, though not a slave; and there he either opened a shop, or applied himself to some mechanical art, or domestic manufacture.

But I am sorry to say, that while the Germans were thus restoring, by degrees, to their own countrymen, that liberty to which every human being has an equal right, they were supplying their places on the lands by captives taken in the wars with the Sclavonians, Danes, and other nations; who were openly sold in the slave market at Mecklenburg.

EMPERORS

OF THE HOUSE OF FRANCONIA.

1024 TO 1125.

As Henry the Second died without heirs, there were many noblemen in Germany who had hopes of being

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elected to fill the vacant throne; therefore, when the Diet for the election was summoned to meet in a large plain on the banks of the Rhine, all the dukes, counts, and margraves of the empire, repaired to the spot; each at the head of a train of armed vassals, who encamped on the plains, presenting the appearance of an army in battle array, rather than an assemblage of peaceable people met together to choose a sovereign.

There were so many claimants on this occasion, that it was six weeks before the question was decided; when the archbishop of Mentz made known to the people that the choice of the electors had fallen on Conrad, Duke of Franconia, an announcement that was received with loud acclamations, and all the nobles came forward immediately to do homage, and take the oath of allegiance to their new sovereign.

Of the reign of Conrad the Second, and that of his son Henry the Third, there is little to tell, unless I were to give you an account of a constant succession of wars with the Poles, Hungarians, and Bohemians; who were always in a state of insurrection. These emperors, too, although they were very much respected, had a great deal of trouble to preserve any degree of order among the princes of the empire, over whom they had, now, but very little authority.

Most of the great vassals had again become almost independent of the crown, and maintained such numbers of followers, that any of them could raise an army, either to defend or oppose his sovereign, as he thought proper. Every count and baron had a castle standing on some eminence, where he could defend himself in case of need; and it was seldom indeed that some of these nobles were not at war with each other.

Few of them were rich, therefore it was very usual for those who had several sons to choose one as the future lord of the castle and estate, and providing the rest with a suit of armour each, and perhaps a few followers, to send them abroad to seek their fortunes, and win estates for themselves where they might.

This was not a plan likely to promote peace, and it was one advantage of the crusades, which began about this time, that they furnished employment for those who had nothing better to do.

When Henry the Third died in 1056, his son Henry the Fourth was only six years old; but he had been crowned king of the Romans, and was elected emperor; his education, as well as the care of the government, was entrusted to his mother, the empress Agnes, who was a very excellent princess, though not equal to the task of ruling such a country as Germany. She had not been long in power before the dukes of Bavaria and Saxony, brothers of the late emperor, conspired together to deprive her of the regency, and in order to accomplish this object, they carried off her son; on which she fled to Rome, and entered a convent, where she took the veil.

The young emperor was not very well brought up, being suffered to give way to every propensity, whether good or evil; so that when he was of an age to take the government into his own hands, he indulged in habits of gambling and drinking, thus setting a very bad example to his subjects, besides losing their respect. The barons who, during his minority, had been under no sort of control, held his authority in contempt, and continued their robberies and extortions in defiance of his prohibitions; when he found, therefore, that they

would not obey him, he had several strong castles built, and garrisoned in Saxony, banished the duke of Saxony, and deprived the Saxons of some of their ancient rights. But the Saxons, unwilling to submit to this treatment, sent him a message, declaring that if he did not immediately recall the duke of Saxony, confirm their ancient laws, pull down all his castles, and restore the lands on which they were erected to their lawful owners, they should declare war against him.

To this message the unwise emperor returned an evasive answer, on which the Saxons assembled in arms, and laid siege to the town of Goslar, in which Henry had taken up his abode. Finding he was unable to defend the town, he fled secretly in the night, and reached the city of Worms, where the people opened their gates to him, and armed themselves in his cause; this being the first time that merchants and tradesmen had ever been permitted to use arms in Germany; and it was an important occurrence, as it removed the great distinction between them and the freemen, who had hitherto regarded this as their exclusive right, and treated the citizens with contempt, because they were prohibited from wearing swords.

This valued privilege was now granted to all the imperial cities, and was of material advantage to the emperor, who had thus a great body of men always at his command; and from this time the merchants of the towns were looked upon as a highly respectable class of the community, and in time we shall find that the nobles did not disdain to form matrimonial alliances with the citizens; a pleasing instance of the improved state of society, since these very citizens were the descendants of the once despised and degraded serfs. We surely

need not another proof of the advantages of freedom and commerce.

The emperor, with the aid of some of the princes, had obliged the Saxons to make peace; but his castles were still standing, and filled with soldiers, who had permission, or were in fact ordered, to provide for themselves as they best could; a mandate they were but too ready to obey, so that the whole duchy was subject to their depredations. The emperor's troops being thus encouraged to lay waste and plunder the country, others thought they might do so likewise; and bands of robbers, under the command of chiefs, who called themselves knights, committed the most daring outrages. The following anecdote will serve to illustrate their proceedings.

One of these bandit chieftains, named Adalbert, had plundered the domains of the bishop of Treves, and carried off the spoil to his own castle. The bishop was desirous of taking some revenge, but the knight was so safe in his fortified tower, that the injured priest found it was no easy matter for him to accomplish this object, and he knew that it was useless to apply for redress to the emperor, who was more apt to encourage such exploits, than to punish them. At last one of the bishop's own domestics, a man named Tycho, undertook to avenge the cause of his master; and going in disguise to Adalbert's castle, he knocked at the gate, and asked for a cup of wine, which was immediately given to him, for the rites of hospitality were always observed even by bad characters, and were therefore not denied by the lord of this castle; Tycho drank the wine, and returned the cup, saying:—"Thank thy master, and tell him I will not fail to do him some service for his good

will,"—and with these words he turned from the gate, and pursued his way homewards.

On returning to the bishop's abode, he called together his companions to consult with them upon a plan he had formed to gain an entrance into the castle, in which they were all very willing to assist. In pursuance of this scheme they procured thirty wine casks, each large enough to contain one armed soldier, and weapons for two more, and, like the robbers in the tale of the Forty Thieves, they set out on their enterprise, every cask with its inmate, being carried by two men dressed like peasants, making in all, ninety men, with Tycho at their head.

When this strange procession reached the castle, the porter opened the gate in much astonishment, when Tycho said to him:—"I am come to recompense your master for the cup of wine he gave me; go, and tell him that I have taken care he shall not want wine for a long time to come."

The porter went to deliver the message to his master, and, during his absence, the men carried the casks into the hall. Count Adalbert instantly appeared, followed by all his people, who were curious to see the present brought to their lord, congratulating themselves, no doubt, on the good cheer they should have; when suddenly, on a signal given by Tycho, the tops of the casks flew off, the armed men jumped out, the pretended carriers seized the weapons that were provided for them, and, after a violent struggle, Adalbert and his banditti were all killed, and the castle was burnt to the ground.

It is possible that this story may not be quite true, but it is a real picture of the state of the times during the reign of Henry the Fourth. This imprudent and unfortunate emperor was excommunicated by the pope,

owing to a quarrel concerning the right of investiture, that is, of appointing bishops and abbots to all vacant benefices, which was an important privilege, because he who possessed it, was entitled not only to a portion of the revenues, but also to supreme authority over the clergy.

The emperors had always exercised this right, but the reigning pope, Gregory the Seventh, a haughty and ambitious man, demanded that it should be given up; and as Henry refused compliance, he passed upon him a sentence of excommunication, which was not removed until the emperor had done penance, by standing for three days in the courtyard of the pontiff's palace, clothed in sackcloth, and barefooted; although it was in the winter season.

After this degradation, most of the German states revolted. The emperor was then deposed, and the duke of Swabia elected in his stead; but Henry contrived to raise a sufficient force to recover his crown; and then, to revenge himself on the pope, he marched into Italy, and laid siege to Rome; which was taken by storm, after a brave defence of nearly two years; when the inhabitants, to save their noble city from destruction, offered to pay a considerable sum of money to the emperor, who consented to spare it on that condition.

It was about this time that Peter the Hermit returned from Jerusalem, and began to preach the crusades in Europe. Then the people throughout France and Germany, from the prince to the peasant, attracted by the novelty of a holy war, and the opportunity of visiting the luxuriant clime of the east, eagerly entered the lists against the infidels.

The first band of crusaders that set forth on this wild

enterprise, consisted of about sixty thousand persons, both men and women, chiefly of the lower orders, with Peter the Hermit at their head. They set forward on foot, like a vast assemblage of lunatics, taking their way through Germany in the most riotous manner possible, increasing in numbers as they went along, and doing a vast deal of mischief wherever they came. This was a very different kind of army from that which was afterwards raised by the greatest princes of Europe.

There were, at this time, a great number of Jews dwelling in the cities that bordered on the Rhine and Moselle, where they had amassed abundance of wealth by trade; and being allowed the free exercise of their religion, were living in ease and respectability. It was against these peaceable and useful citizens, that the ignorant multitude directed their first hostilities, on pretence that they had taken up arms against all who were not Christians; but it is to be feared that the temptation of plundering the wealthy Jews, was stronger than their love of Christianity. A great number of Jewish families were murdered in the most barbarous manner, and those who were fortunate enough to save their lives by flight, were robbed of their property, and their houses were burnt down.

The route of the crusaders lay through the wild and desolate forests of Hungary, where the warlike Hungarians still dwelt in all the barbarism of ancient times. They were all pagans, consequently the crusaders believed they ought to be exterminated; but the Hungarians were a fierce and powerful race of people, and as soon as they found that the Christians were destroying their temples, and committing other acts of hostility, they took such ample vengeance, that the foolish people

who had provoked their wrath, were slain by thousands, and those who escaped and reached the plains of Asia, were soon cut to pieces by the Turks.

Such was the fate of this misguided multitude, supposed to have consisted of no less than three hundred thousand French and German peasants. This fruitless attempt, however, proved to be a prelude to the holy wars. A brilliant expedition followed soon afterwards, composed of knights and nobles, and conducted by some of the greatest princes of France and Germany. The enterprise undertaken by this vast assemblage was called the first crusade.

In the meanwhile, the Emperor, who was now growing old, had been constantly engaged in wars with his own subjects, and, as an aggravation of this repulsive warfare, he had been obliged to take the field against his own son Conrad, who had joined the disaffected party, and usurped the title of king of Italy. For this act of rebellion Conrad was declared an outlaw, and his younger brother, Henry, was elected king of the Romans in his stead.

But the emperor soon found that he had nothing to hope from the affection of either of his sons, for the king of the Romans, being impatient to wear the imperial crown, caused his father to be seized and confined in a prison, where the unhappy monarch suffered the most harsh treatment, until he consented to abdicate the throne. The mode in which he was deprived of his dignity was cruel in the extreme; but it is most likely that the violence he met with was occasioned by his attempting to make an appeal to those who were assembled to witness the act of abdication; for he was dragged from his throne, and the crown was rudely snatched

from his head, and placed on that of his unnatural son, who immediately took his father's seat without the least sign of remorse.

The tears streamed down the cheeks of the deposed sovereign, as he bitterly exclaimed, "I own I have been very sinful, and have merited this punishment for the follies of my youth; but thou, O God, wilt not fail to punish these traitors for their ingratitude." The faults of Henry the Fourth were more the effect of his bad education, than of a vicious disposition; therefore, his misfortunes cannot fail to excite pity, for he was so utterly deserted by every one, that he was reduced to actual want, and in this distressed condition, he applied for the situation of a singer in a cathedral, but even this humble request was refused by the bishop.

At last, the citizens of Cologne rose in his favour, and he was received among them as their lawful emperor; but their loyalty was rendered unavailing, by his death, which happened in the Netherlands, whither he had proceeded in the hope of raising more friends, in the year 1106.

I need not say much about the character of Henry the Fifth, whose conduct towards his father is a sufficient proof of a bad heart; yet some historians assert that he was not a bad sovereign; by which we will suppose they mean that he conducted the government of the country with ability, although he was not an amiable man. This prince was the son-in-law of our Henry the First, having married his daughter Matilda.

From this time, to the accession of Rodolph of Hapsburg, the emperors and popes were continually at variance on the old subject of investiture, the nature of which I have before explained. There was also another cause of

dispute, and that was, whether the pope should have the chief voice in the election of the emperor, or the emperor in the election of the pope; therefore, with such causes of quarrel, it is not surprising that they were never at peace.

Henry the Fifth, soon after his accession, crossed the Alps at the head of the most formidable army that had ever entered Italy, since the days of the Romans, in the hope of obliging the pope to give up the right of investing the bishops; but as he found that the pope was determined not to yield, he ordered his soldiers to seize him in St. Peter's church, as he was celebrating mass; and the venerable old man was made prisoner, and dragged away to the German camp, where he was treated in the most disrespectful manner, notwithstanding his sacred character, which at least ought to have protected him from personal insult.

We cannot, however, be surprised that a man who could forget his duty towards his aged parent, should also be capable of insulting a minister of religion. The Romans took up arms in defence of their pontiff, and a desperate battle was fought in the streets of Rome, in which the citizens were defeated, and great numbers of them killed; but the emperor did not gain much by his violence, for all Germany was soon in a state of rebellion, and it was with very great difficulty he was able to maintain himself on the throne.

About this time the pope, who had been set at liberty, died, and a successor was chosen without the emperor's consent, which so incensed him, that he declared the election void, choosing at the same time another pontiff. As the question had not been decided whether his consent was necessary to confirm the election, it was not easy to

determine which was the true pope, a difficulty which occurred continually during the whole of the wars between the church and the crown.

The war with the revolted states of Germany and Italy, still continued, till at length both countries became so desirous of peace, that, in order to procure it, a council was summoned at Rome, consisting of about three hundred bishops, and seven hundred abbots, when the right of investiture was formally surrendered to the emperor. These were the principal events in the reign of Henry the Fifth, who died in 1125, and with him ended the dominion of the house of Franconia.

GERMANY,

IN THE TWELFTH CENTURY.

As Henry the Fifth was the last prince of his race, a Diet for a new election assembled as before, when Lothaire, duke of Saxony, was selected as the most proper person to wear the imperial crown. The dukes, at this time, were more powerful than ever, assuming exactly the style of sovereign princes, and scarcely deigning to acknowledge the authority of the emperor, whose imperial dignity indeed, as far as the nobles were concerned, was little more than a name. The duke of Bavaria had a sword carried before him on all public occasions, which was an assumption of royalty.

The emperors, at this period, had much difficulty in maintaining themselves in their possessions, for the kings of Poland were constantly in a state of revolt; Lombardy had to be conquered over again every reign; and the southern provinces of Italy had fallen into the hands of the Normans, owing to the conquests made in Calabria by some brave Norman knights, named Guiscard. It was hardly possible for the emperor to keep his Italian subjects in subjection, for the German nobles were now very unwilling to undertake any military service beyond the bounds of the empire, particularly in Italy, where the marshes were very injurious to their health.

The term of feudal service being only forty days, no vassal of superior rank would go to the Italian wars, unless the emperor provided him with money, provisions, and wine, for the whole campaign; nor would the inferior vassals follow their masters without similar supplies, on a smaller scale. Hence, there was so little reliance to be placed on a feudal army, that the emperors began to raise mercenary troops, that is, to hire soldiers for pay.

A force composed of such troops, was different from a standing army, because, when the war was over, these men were disbanded, and then they became a terrible pest to the country, since they invariably turned robbers, when they were no longer wanted as soldiers. It was this evil that first gave rise to standing armies, which was an improvement upon the former system; for although the soldiers had to be paid in peace as well as in war, they were in both cases a great protection to the country.

As soon as war became a trade by which men of low

rank could earn a livelihood, it ceased to be that distinguishing mark of free and noble birth, which formerly had rendered it so attractive. The absurd notion that used to exist, of trade being only fit for serfs and freedmen, was fast wearing away, and all men began to think that commerce was an honourable employment, even for the nobles; and the citizens were consequently held in so much higher respect than they used to be, that they were allowed to send representatives to the Diets.

With regard to the manners of the times, there was little difference between the people of Germany and those of other European nations, at the same period. The people of the towns lived in houses built of wood, with few conveniences, and no elegancies of domestic furniture. Some of the most wealthy, covered the walls of their best apartments with tapestry, others had them painted in imitation of it. The great dwelt in gloomy castles, where the ladies passed their time in spinning, working embroidery, and playing on the harp or lute, often mourning the absence of their lords, who were away in the Holy Land.

When a baron had gone crusading, his castle halls were silent and dreary; but when he was at home, they resounded with mirth, for the Germans had not lost their taste for feasting and drinking; and you may form some idea of the extent to which these indulgences were carried from the fact that one of the articles of the coronation oath, taken by the emperors, made it a condition that they would try to live soberly. The German nobles, however, made no such promise, and being generally fierce in temper, they were often guilty of terrible acts of violence, when heated with wine.

The dresses of those days, were such as were general during the middle ages, consisting of a coat, reaching below the knees, open in front; a mantle, and a cap, the materials of which they were made being suitable to the rank of the wearer; cloth, silk, velvet, and fur, were all in use; and the dresses of people of rank were often richly embroidered with gold and silver.

There were no carriages of any kind, everybody travelling on horses, or mules. The first conveyance of a more luxurious kind, was the horse litter, introduced into Europe by the crusaders from the east. This was a sort of palanquin, or covered cot, slung between two poles, attached to the harness of the horses, one horse being stationed before, the other behind it. The litter was only used by females or invalids; but it was a very convenient and easy mode of travelling, where the badness of the roads would have rendered carriages useless; and it was adopted in all the countries of Europe.

There were no inns on the roads at this period, the monasteries serving as houses of entertainment for travellers; and the castles of the nobility too were seldom shut against those who required rest and refreshment. We must remember that there was little travelling in those days compared to that in after times, the principal wayfarers being pilgrims, knights errant, and warriors going to, or returning from, the Holy Land.

During the reign of Lothaire the Second, there was so hot a summer, that the rivers became dry, the grass was burnt up, and the cattle perished on the plains for want of water. This drought occasioned a terrible scarcity all over the country.

One of the chief historical events in this reign, was the foundation of the noble house of Brandenburg, which took its rise from the circumstance of the emperor having bestowed a small domain called the Margraviate of Brandenburg, on a descendant of the ancient dukes of Saxony, called Albert the Boar, a name he doubtless obtained on account of his fierceness. He was a great warrior, and made many conquests over the Sclavonian tribes, on the coast of the Baltic, by which he greatly enlarged his territories, and became a powerful prince.

The emperor Lothaire died suddenly at a cottage on the Alps, as he was returning from Germany, in the year 1138, an event that involved the country in a long civil war.

EMPERORS

OF

THE HOUSE OF SWABIA.

1138 TO 1254.

THE unexpected death of Lothaire, who left no sons, gave rise to a violent contest for the crown, and among the claimants were two who seemed to have an equal right to it; the one being Conrad, duke of Swabia and Franconia, a nephew of Henry the Fourth; the other, Henry, duke of Bavaria and Saxony, who was married to the late emperor's only daughter.

Now it had lately been a custom, in case of fiefs, there being no male heir, to renew the grant to the husband of the daughter; and many were of opinion that the same rule ought to be observed with regard to the throne; but others thought differently; and after much disputing among the electors, the votes were given in favour of Conrad of Swabia, who was crowned accordingly.

The duke of Bavaria, considering himself an injured man, prepared to enforce his claim by the sword; on which, the emperor commanded him to surrender one of his duchies, and on his refusal, summoned a Diet, and declared him dispossessed of both; at the same time, giving Bavaria to the margrave of Austria, who was a grandson of Henry the Fourth, and Saxony to Albert the Boar. This proceeding so incensed the deposed duke, that he immediately commenced a war against the emperor; but he died in a short time, and the contest was carried on by his brother, with the aid of Roger, king of Sicily, who had his own reasons for enmity towards the emperor.

Conrad, as I mentioned before, had given away the duchy of Saxony to Albert the Boar, but Albert had not been able to obtain possession of it; for when the deposed duke died, his son, Henry the Lion, a brave and warlike prince, resolutely defended his inheritance, and maintained it, in spite of all opposition. This war was the origin of two parties, that long afterwards were as famous in Italy and Germany, as those of the Red and White Roses in England. These two parties were the Guelphs and the Ghibelins. Guelph was the family name of the duke of Saxony; those who sided with Henry the Lion, were called Guelphs; whilst those

who supported the cause of the emperor took the title of Ghibelin, from a castle belonging to Frederick, duke of Swabia, a cousin of the emperor, and the commander of his forces. In after times, the terms, Guelph and Ghibelin, were used in Italy to distinguish the pope's party from that of the emperor.

The war continued for some time, and was, at length, brought to a close, by the following singular and interesting circumstance. The emperor laid siege to the castle of Weinsburg, in Saxony, which was gallantly defended by Duke Guelph, Henry the Lion's uncle; but this nobleman having lost a great number of men in an unsuccessful sally, was obliged to surrender at discretion, that is, on any terms the emperor thought proper to demand. Conrad was not a cruel prince; instead, therefore, of taking advantage of the duke's misfortunes, he sent him word, that he and his chief officers might retire from the castle.

The duchess, however, was rather mistrustful of his sincerity, and feared that, if the duke and his friends should venture beyond the walls, they might be made prisoners, (and there were others also, not included in the permission, for whose safety she was anxious;) she, therefore, sent a messenger to the emperor, begging that she and all the women in the castle might be permitted to leave it, with as much as they could carry, and that they might be conducted to a place of safety.

The emperor granted the request, and stationed himself, with all his chief officers, and a great number of soldiers, to witness their departure, expecting to see them laden with apparel and caskets of jewels; but what was their astonishment, when the castle gates were thrown open, to behold a procession of females

coming forth, each carrying her husband on her back, and moving forwards with great difficulty under such a heavy burthen. The emperor was so pleased at such an instance of conjugal affection, that he immediately proposed terms of peace, and acknowledged Henry the Lion as the rightful duke of Saxony.

It was soon after the termination of this war, that a monk named St. Bernard, travelled through France and Germany, preaching a new Crusade. Conrad the emperor, and Louis-le-Jeune, king of France, were both persuaded by his exhortations to engage in this enterprise; and as soon as their intentions were made known, crowds of adventurers flocked to their standards, and two vast armies were speedily formed. It is said that the emperor left Germany at the head of three hundred thousand men, a number which would not appear incredible when we consider that the Germans were not manufacturers, that very few, in proportion to the whole population, were engaged in trade, and that the greater part of the people had no other employment than that of fighting; it is not surprising therefore that the crusading sovereigns were able to raise immense armies.

The expedition of Conrad was unfortunate; for very few of those who followed him, lived to return. Many thousands perished in Greece of an epidemic disorder, others were cut off by the Turks, and, at last, the emperor returned home with the remnant of his troops, and died of grief at the failure of an enterprise from which he had expected to gain great renown. He died in 1152, and was succeeded by his nephew, Frederick Barbarossa, one of the most celebrated of all the German emperors, and a prince whose energetic

character was well fitted to overcome difficulties, and to rule over the haughty nobles of Germany.

Henry the Lion was still in possession of his duchy of Saxony, and he now demanded the restoration of Bavaria, which had been taken from his father by Conrad, and bestowed on Leopold, the margrave of Austria. Frederick Barbarossa acknowledged the justice of his claim, and restored the duchy to him as the lawful heir. At the same time, he compensated the margrave for his loss, by erecting his fief of Austria into a duchy, and making it independent of Bavaria, to which it had before been subject; so that Leopold, grandson of the unfortunate emperor, Henry the Fourth, was the first duke of Austria.

The prosperity of Henry the Lion was not of long duration, for his possessions were so extensive, that he had far too much power, and was, on that account, a very dangerous subject. He refused to perform any of his duties as a vassal, and gave reason for suspicion that he had some idea of attempting to dethrone the emperor, and place the crown on his own head; but, however that might be, he gave ample cause for a charge of treason to be brought against him, and being summoned to appear before the Diet, he was banished, and all his vast dominions were declared forfeited to the crown.

The proud duke did not tamely submit to this hard sentence, but collecting all the vassals who remained faithful to him, he maintained a war against the emperor for three years, when he was pardoned, on condition that he should go to England, and remain there in exile for a few years, during which time, his two fiefs of Brunswick and Lunenburg should be preserved for his

children. England was chosen as his place of exile, because his wife was the daughter of Henry the Second, then king of this country; and it may here be remarked, by the way, that one of his sons being the founder of the House of Brunswick, the present royal family of England are descendants of Henry the Lion.

The Danes being now freed from a powerful enemy, began to make frequent irruptions into Saxony; and the very year after Duke's Henry's banishment, the king of Denmark not only threw off his allegiance to the emperor, who was his lord paramount, but he seized on the duchy of Holstein, and some other states belonging to the empire, which caused a great deal of future warfare. The fall of Henry the Lion also made considerable alterations in the divisions of the empire, and the dependencies of different princes, for his territories had been so large, that many new states arose from them, while several cities that had been dependant on the dukes of Saxony and Bavaria, were now made imperial cities; and among these, were the two towns of Lubec and Ratisbon, which afterwards rose to so much importance. As Lubec was one of the first and most considerable of the Hanse towns, a short account of its foundation may not be uninteresting.

About two years after the accession of Conrad the Second, Adolphus, earl of Nordalbing, conquered a tribe of Selavonians, who inhabited a small peninsula on the Baltic, and possessed himself of their country, which, it occurred to him, might be made into a fine place for trade; he, therefore, built a town on a spot which was excellently situated for a harbour, and gave it the name of Lubec.

Having built this town, an undertaking of no long

duration, since its size was at first inconsiderable, and its houses were of wood, he offered grants of land to any Dutch and Flemish farmers who would bring their families to settle in the surrounding country, which, in consequence, was soon occupied and cultivated, and Lubec became a flourishing trading town, having many ships belonging to the inhabitants. So great was its prosperity, that the commerce of the neighbouring towns began to be eclipsed; and Henry the Lion, who was then the lord over all the country, demanded that Adolphus should give to him one half of his new city, as a compensation for the loss he had sustained, by the decrease of the trade at Lunenburg, from which he, as feudal superior, used to derive great profits. Adolphus refused to give away half his town, on which, the duke issued a mandate, prohibiting the sale of any merchandise at Lubec, except articles of food.

Soon after this, the city suffered extensively from fire, and then Adolphus resigned it to the duke, who, in order to induce the citizens to rebuild their houses, took off the prohibition of trade, established a custom-house and a mint there, and sent messengers into every country of the north, to invite merchants to bring thither their goods. Lubec soon became one of the most prosperous cities of the German empire; and at the fall of Henry the Lion, it was, as I said before, freed from its feudal dependence on the dukes of Saxony, and raised to the rank of a free and imperial city.

Frederick Barbarossa reigned thirty-eight years, during which the country was in a more peaceable and prosperous state than it had been in for a very long time. At the advanced age of seventy, this great prince undertook a crusade to the Holy Land, where the renowned

Saladin, sultan of Egypt, was extending his conquests over the Christians.

The city of Jerusalem had fallen into the sultan's hands, and the kingdom of Antioch was almost entirely subdued, so that the Christians were in danger of being driven out of Palestine, when Pope Clement the Third ordered a crusade to be preached throughout Europe, and Frederick was one of the first to take the cross. He was joined by all the chief nobles and ecclesiastics of Germany, and followed by a countless host of freemen; for the misfortunes of the last band of crusaders that went from Germany, did not deter others from the same adventure. Many a count and baron, in order to procure money, and a splendid suit of armour for this expedition, sold his superiority over his vassal towns, which were thus converted into free cities. This had been done, to a great extent, ever since the commencement of the crusades; so that many cities were now free and wealthy, which, before these wars, had been under feudal subjection.

Before his departure for the Holy Land, the emperor made a progress through his dominions, accompanied by his son, to whom he committed the care of the government; and then he set forth on the famous crusade, in which our king Richard the First took so active a part. But Frederick Barbarossa died before the king of England had reached Palestine; for after having gained several victories over the infidels, he was drowned by accident in a small stream.

This happened in the year 1190, and his son, Henry the Sixth, who had been crowned king of the Romans, was immediately elected to the imperial throne. He was married to Constance, heiress to the crown of Sicily

and Naples, or, as that kingdom was usually called, the two Sicilies; but on the death of her father, a prince named Tancred usurped her inheritance, which caused the emperor to go to war with him, and the cruelties committed by the German soldiers, and even by Henry himself, in the course of this war, caused the Italians to look upon him as a tyrant.

About this time, Henry the Lion came back from England, and made several attempts to recover his dominions; but he was unsuccessful; and it was with some difficulty he preserved his patrimonial estates of Brunswick and Lunenburg, with which he was, in the end, obliged to content himself.

It was while Henry the Sixth was emperor of Germany, that Richard the First, in returning from the Holy Land, was made prisoner by Leopold, duke of Austria; but as the story of his adventures has already been related in the History of England, I need not here repeat it.

There is, however, one circumstance connected with the crusade in which he had been engaged, which merits your attention, and that is, the rise of a powerful order of men, called the Teutonic knights, who were afterwards as famous as the Templars. These knights owed their origin to the establishment of a charitable society, composed of some of the citizens of Bremen and Lubec, who, during the siege of Acre, one of the cities of Palestine, associated themselves together for the care of the sick and wounded, and joined the Christian armies for that purpose.

When Henry the Sixth returned from his Italian wars, he formed this society into a regular order of military and religious knights, in imitation of the

Templars, and built a house for them at Coblenz. They were governed by a grand master, and gained great renown by frequent crusades against the infidels, and made themselves famous by expeditions against the pagans of Prussia, Courland, and Livonia, in which countries they acquired large possessions, and, in time, became masters of the richest provinces of the north.

When Henry the Sixth died in 1198, for he only reigned seven years, his infant son Frederick became emperor without any election; for his father had persuaded the Diet to pass a law which made the crown hereditary; but it was necessary to have a regent until the young emperor should be of age, and the question was, who had the best claim to the regency. One party chose Philip, duke of Swabia, the uncle of the infant sovereign; while another proposed Otho, duke of Brunswick, the son of Henry the Lion, who was now dead. Otho was nephew to Richard, king of England, who, therefore, naturally gave him his support, as did also the pope; and he was actually elected emperor, and crowned, notwithstanding the law of inheritance.

The opposite party, on finding this, crowned the prince they had chosen, and then each of the emperors elected a pope; so that there were now three emperors and three popes, all reigning at the same time. This confusion, however, did not last long, for Philip was assassinated, and Otho of Brunswick was acknowledged sole master of the empire; for no one thought much about the young Frederick, who was still a child, and living in Italy with his mother, the Empress Constance, in whose right he inherited the kingdom of Sicily, where he had been crowned.

Now Otho the Fourth was rather a tyrannical prince, and not content with usurping the dominions of Frederick, he demanded that he should do homage for Sicily as a fief of the imperial crown, which, being refused, he invaded that country; and it was during his absence, that Valdemar the Great, king of Denmark, made himself master of the whole coast of the Baltic, from Holstein to Livonia.

The Germans now began to be dissatisfied with Otho's government, because he neglected the affairs of his own empire, to interfere in those of Italy; so they deposed him, and invited Frederick, who had now arrived at manhood, to come and take possession of a throne that was lawfully his own. Frederick, therefore, set out for Germany; but Otho had still a strong party in his favour, who guarded the passes of the Alps to intercept his rival, who, after many narrow escapes, at length reached his new dominions in safety; and as he was immediately proclaimed in all the towns, Otho gave up the contest, and retired to Brunswick, where he spent the remainder of his life in religious exercises.

Frederick the Second was crowned with much magnificence, at Aix-la-Chapelle, in the year 1215, when he made a promise to the pope, that, to prevent further disputes, the crowns of Sicily and Germany should never be united; and, in pursuance of this engagement, he gave up the former to his son. Frederick the Second was one of the most enlightened men of the age; he was acquainted with six languages, was a poet, and a patron of literature.

The trade of Germany was, at this time, so considerable, that, in the early part of the reign of Frederick, the merchants of Cologne established a hall or

factory in London, called the guildhall of the Germans; a privilege, for which they paid thirty marks to the king. This hall became, in time, the residence of the German merchants in London, after the formation of that celebrated confederacy, called the Hanseatic league, entered into by the commercial towns of Germany, during this reign, for the protection of their goods from pirates and robbers, a more full account of which, you will find in the History of the Northern nations.

When Frederick was crowned, he made a vow that he would lead a crusade to the Holy Land; but he found so much to do at home, that he constantly put off the fulfilment of his engagement, till the pope grew so angry, that he pronounced a sentence of excommunication against him; on which, he began to make preparations for his departure. His pride, however, prevented him from asking for absolution, before he set sail, so that when he arrived at Ptolemais, none of the crusaders would join him, because he was an excommunicated man. The Templars, the Teutonic knights, the Knights of St. John, all refused to admit him to their society, or to lend him the smallest aid, upon which he must have relied, previous to his departure, since he had only a small band of one hundred knights, who had accompanied him from Germany, for he did not raise a large army, as other emperors had done.

The result of this crusade seems rather mysterious, for Frederick met with more success than any others who had gone on the same adventure, at the head of a countless host. He made peace with the Sultan of Egypt, who surrendered to him Bethlehem, Nazareth, and part of Jerusalem; so that in spite of all disadvantages, he returned in triumph to Germany. Some

say, this extraordinary success was owing to his great valour; others think, with more probability, that there was some secret understanding between the emperor and the sultan, by which the latter was induced to make an agreement, not intended to be binding; but that would save the credit of the emperor, and give him a sort of triumph over the pope. Whatever might have been the occasion of his good fortune, he certainly came back to Europe with all the glory of a conqueror; and having effected a reconciliation with the pope, he returned to Germany.

Frederick being now on friendly terms with the princes of the east, the merchants and factors of Germany travelled by land and water as far as India, and gained so much wealth by their traffic, that, after it had been carried on for some years, twelve camels were sent to the emperor laden with gold and silver, being the profits of his share in the eastern trade; and out of the wealth thus acquired, he was able to send rich silks, and other valuable presents, to Henry the Third of England, and his brother, Richard, duke of Cornwall, and to bequeath one hundred thousand ounces of gold for the service of the Holy Land.

The rest of the reign of Frederick the Second was chiefly spent in civil wars, both in Italy and Germany; for the peace with the pope did not last long, and he was again excommunicated and deposed; but he would not submit to the sentence, declaring, that as long as he could wield a sword, he would never part with his crown.

This brave prince died in the year 1250, at Naples, where he had founded an university, and many schools; for you must remember, that a great part of Italy still

belonged to the empire, and Frederick was as anxious for the encouragement of learning in that country, as in Germany. The University of Vienna was also founded by him; and he conferred many new privileges on the imperial towns, among which was one of very great importance, bestowed on the citizens of Frankfort, securing to them, in future, the right of disposing of their sons and daughters in marriage, without the consent of the emperor.

During the reign of Frederick the Second, the Tatars, a race of people, hitherto unheard of in Europe, conquered Russia, and spread desolation throughout Hungary and Poland. The German emperor wrote to all the Christian princes, to beg they would unite their forces for the expulsion of these barbarians, who threatened destruction to all the west of Europe; but as the pope was at war with the emperor, other sovereigns were prevented from rendering their assistance; and the Tatars were driven back to Russia by the Germans alone.

I have had, and shall have, frequent occasion to speak of the pope, but you must understand, that whenever I do so, I seldom speak of the same person; for the popes being usually old men when they were raised to the papal chair, seldom reigned long; so that they succeeded each other more quickly than the kings. During the reign of Frederick the Second, there were no less than six different popes, therefore, to avoid confusion, I shall not mention them by name, unless there is any thing remarkable to relate of either; for it is of very little consequence whether the name of the pontiff by whom the emperor was excommunicated, happened to be Honorius or Gregory; but when you read the

History of Italy, you will know something more about these great potentates.

Frederick may be considered as the last of the Swabian emperors; for although his son Conrad took the title of emperor, and was acknowledged by all those who called themselves Ghibelins, which meant the party opposed to the pope; still, he had to contend for the throne with William, count of Holland, who had been elected before the death of Frederick by the pope's adherents, who were called Guelphs; therefore, he never really reigned in Germany. Conrad died four years after his accession, leaving an only son, then an infant, whose misfortunes and untimely fate will be related in the next chapter.

THE LONG ANARCHY.

1254 TO 1273.

THE long anarchy was a period of about twenty years, that elapsed between the death of Conrad the Fourth and the election of Rodolf of Hapsburg, the first emperor of the house of Austria. Conrad being dead, and his young son having no friends to interest themselves for him, the pope gave away the kingdom of Sicily to the French prince, Charles of Anjou; and a great number of competitors appeared for the imperial crown, the principal of whom were William of Holland,

Richard, duke of Cornwall; and Alfonso, the king of Castile. Neither of these princes could properly be called the emperor, although each was elected and crowned by a different party. The duke of Cornwall was unwise enough to expend upon his coronation, the immense sum of seven hundred thousand pounds of silver; a piece of folly that was a great injury to the English people, by taking so much wealth out of the country.

There was now no supreme government in Germany. The laws were utterly disregarded; every castle was again filled with banditti, and every petty prince was a captain of robbers. The highways were so insecure, that no one thought of travelling without an escort, and the escorts were often bands of robbers, who undertook the service for a stipulated reward. A great many romantic tales have been founded on the lawless state of society in Germany, during these twenty years.

In the mean time, the young Conrad grew up, and, although he was neither emperor nor king of Sicily, he was duke of Swabia, that duchy being his matrimonial inheritance. He was a brave prince, and at the age of sixteen, he, in conjunction with his cousin, Frederick, duke of Austria, a noble youth about his own age, raised an army, and entered Italy, for the purpose of attempting to recover some part of his dominions. Several of the Italian towns declared in his favour; but a battle was fought, in which the youthful heroes were defeated, and both being taken prisoners, they were beheaded by order of Charles of Anjou, in the market place of Naples.

I must now tell you how it happened that there was such a multiplicity of princes in Germany, each in possession of a very small territory. At the fall of Henry

the Lion, the duchies of Saxony and Bavaria were dismembered, and divided into a great number of small fiefs, which were bestowed on vassals, who styled themselves Princes of the empire, and each of them was a petty sovereign, being subject only to the emperor.

After the melancholy death of Conrad, the duchy of Swabia was divided in like manner, and a great many more princes then appeared in German history. As these died, they left their dominions among their sons, who were all princes of the empire of equal rank, but with smaller possessions than those held by their fathers; and these being again and again subdivided, the princes of Germany were as numerous as bees in a hive, and the estates of some of them were not larger than a good-sized farm. However, they had the same authority in these petty states, that was formerly possessed by the dukes in their vast domains; and the emperor could neither build fortresses, nor coin money, nor levy taxes, nor enforce the laws by means of his judges, in any of these small states, where the princes were the absolute lords. All these princes had a right to a seat in the provincial Diet, but in consequence of the repeated subdivision of the lands, they all became, in time, very poor, and very powerless.

While the nobles were thus growing poor, the citizens were becoming rich, and as many of them now elected their own magistrates, the wealthy citizens had an opportunity of rising to municipal dignities, which placed them on a level, even with princes, so that matrimonial alliances were sometimes formed between the families of nobles and those of citizens, which put an end to that marked distinction which formerly existed.

The condition of the serfs and peasantry was con-

siderably ameliorated, for absolute slavery had ceased throughout the greater part of the empire, although in a few states, it existed in its worst form. However, on the whole, great improvements had taken place in the state of the middle and lower classes, who were rapidly rising to their proper place in society.

The dreadful state of the country, however, during the long anarchy, had proved a great injury to trade and agriculture. Warfare was going on in every state between the partisans of the several claimants for the crown; the lands were laid waste, castles were besieged, and females obliged to fly for refuge to the convents. Merchants could not send their goods to any distance without a strong guard; and, at length, as this even was not a sufficient protection against the nobles of Swabia and Franconia, who were all bandit chiefs, and whose attacks were directed principally against the merchants' caravans, all the cities on both sides of the Rhine, about seventy in number, joined together for mutual defence against the robbers, whose gangs were numerous enough to be called armies; and whose depredations, when successful, were looked upon as victories, and applauded as meritorious actions.

The confederation of the cities was strengthened by the support of the archbishops of Mentz and Cologne, and was called the League of the Rhine. The citizens, thus associated, formed armies as numerous and as powerful as those with which they had to contend; and the warfare which ensued, continued, till the great princes began to see that, unless they placed a sovereign at the head of the empire, it must soon be utterly ruined; they therefore, assembled a Diet of election at Frankfort, and

being resolved to be governed by none but a native prince, the election was determined in favour of Rodolf of Hapsburg.

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

RODOLF OF HAPSBURG.

1310 TO 1350.

RODOLF, the founder of the present house of Austria, was an obscure prince of the ancient family of Austria, who had inherited his father's title of Count of Hapsburg, with a small territory, and castle of that name, in Switzerland. Rodolf was a warrior, and had served in the armies of Ottocar, king of Bohemia, where he had distinguished himself by his bravery; but he never thought of aspiring to the crown, and when he heard that he was elected emperor, he was as much surprised as every body else.

It happened thus. The archbishop of Mentz, who was one of the electors, and, perhaps, the most influential of them all, had occasion, during the long anarchy, to pay a visit to Rome, and fearing that his own retinue would be insufficient for his protection, he begged of Rodolf to furnish him with a band of horsemen, to conduct him to the Italian frontiers. The count not only complied with his request, but he put himself at the head of his vassals, and escorted the reverend prelate across the

Alps in safety. During this journey, the archbishop had an opportunity of becoming intimately acquainted with the character of Rodolf, and the high estimate he had formed of it, induced him, at the Diet of election, to propose this almost-unknown individual as a proper person to be placed at the head of the empire; and he was elected accordingly, to the great mortification of the several candidates, but more particularly of Ottocar of Bohemia, who was himself one of the electors.

The archbishop had, probably, some little trouble in carrying his point, for it appears he persuaded three of the electors to give their votes, by promising they should marry Rodolf's daughters; and as the next advantage to being elected themselves, was a close alliance to the emperor, who was sure to have valuable fiefs at his disposal, they voted accordingly. The seven electors were the archbishops of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne; the dukes of Bavaria and Saxony; the margrave of Brandenburg, and the king of Bohemia.

When the news of his election was brought to Rodolf, he was engaged in besieging the city of Basle, and so little did he expect such an honour, that he, at first, treated the intelligence as a jest; but he soon found it was true, and the citizens of Basle were the first to open their gates and acknowledge him as their emperor; after which, he proceeded immediately to Aix-la-Chapelle, where he was crowned by his good friend, the archbishop of Mentz. Such was the beginning of the since-powerful and illustrious house of Austria, the members of which have just reason to be proud of the founder of their greatness.

Rodolf was fifty-five years of age, when he ascended the throne; he was nearly seven feet in height; his

figure was slender, his head almost bald, his complexion pale, and his countenance grave and thoughtful; but his temper was cheerful, and his manners extremely affable, so that he soon became popular.

The first and greatest object of this prince was to put an end to the troubles that had so long distracted the country, and to bring the neglected laws again into force. But his plans were, for some time, delayed by a war with the king of Bohemia and the duke of Bavaria, who would not take the oath of allegiance, or do homage for their fiefs. It is related that the king, when summoned to appear before the emperor for this purpose, said insultingly, "What does Rodolf want with me? I have paid him his wages;" alluding to the time when the emperor was in his service.

The war went on for three years, when Ottocar was obliged so submit; but Rodolf was a generous enemy, and allowed him to retain his kingdom of Bohemia, only obliging him to give up the provinces of Austria, Styria, and Carinthia, which he had usurped. When peace was made between these two sovereigns, it was agreed that a son of Ottocar should marry a daughter of Rodolf, and a son of Rodolf a daughter of Ottocar; but the Bohemian monarch soon rebelled again, and placed his daughter in a convent, till, at length, he being killed in battle, the young lady, after a time, was released, and became the bride of the emperor's son.

When Ottocar was dead, Rodolf secured to his own family the whole of the Austrian dominions, made his son Albert duke of Austria, and fixed his residence at Vienna, to which he granted all the privileges of an imperial city; and then he turned all his attention towards restoring peace and good order to the country.

He had taken care, immediately on his accession, to strengthen his authority by obtaining the friendship and support of the pope, Gregory the Tenth, who was a wise and good man, and very desirous of promoting the good of the empire, which he could not do better, than by aiding the views of so patriotic a prince as Rodolf.

The war being over, the emperor began to take very decided measures for putting a stop to highway robbery, by destroying the strongholds of the banditti that infested the roads in all directions. In one year, he demolished not less than seventy castles, and put to death twenty-nine noblemen of the province of Thuringia, who, in defiance of his command, had continued their depredations. The friends of some of these noble culprits petitioned the emperor to spare their lives; but he remained firm to his purpose, saying, "Do not, I beg you, interfere in behalf of these robbers, nor call them nobles, which they are not; for true nobility is faithful and just, neither breaking the public peace, nor doing injury to any one."

The emperor was thus severe in punishing these lawless barons, because he knew it was the only way to remedy the evils caused by so many years of misrule; and he was equally strict in prohibiting the building of any fortresses and towers that were not necessary for the defence of the country. The beneficial effects of his measures were soon felt, and displayed in the improved appearance of the empire: the land was again cultivated, and commerce revived, because the roads were rendered safe for the conveyance of merchandise. The emperor was so desirous that the laws should be enforced, and justice strictly administered, that he often presided in the courts himself, and never refused to hear a complaint,

however humble the rank of the complainant. An instance of this one day occurred, when his guards were trying to prevent the approach of some poor people, who wished to present a petition to the sovereign. "Let them come," said he, "I was not made emperor to be excluded from my fellow creatures."

The conduct of Rodolf made him beloved and respected by all who were friends to good order, but gave great dissatisfaction to the greater portion of the nobles, who had been so long unaccustomed to any restraint, that they were very unwilling to submit to it; and, every now and then, some rebellious vassal had to be subdued and punished. There were many too, who, during the troubles of the empire, had seized on fiefs to which they had no right, and some of which belonged to the crown. All these Rodolf demanded should be given up; and as, in many cases, the demand was refused, he often had to take them by force.

Among others, the count of Savoy had taken possession of some estates and towns in Switzerland; and as he refused to restore them, the emperor led his army into the count's territories, and a desperate conflict took place, which ended in his being obliged to give up the fiefs in question.

An anecdote is told of Rodolf in this brief war, which proves that, although he was an old man, being now sixty-five years of age, he was still brave, strong, and active. Being surrounded by several of the foe, and thrown from his horse, he jumped into a lake, and held by the branch of a tree, to avoid sinking from the weight of his armour; and while in this position, he defended himself with one hand, till some of his soldiers came to his relief.

This emperor was a great friend to the freedom of the cities, granting charters to many of them, by which their rights were increased, and their trade was advanced. Most of them had now the liberty of electing their own magistrates, and very few remained under feudal subjection.

Rodolf, though a strict, was not a stern, prince; but, on the contrary, was extremely good-natured. Once, while he was staying at Mentz, he happened to walk out one morning alone, and very plainly dressed; and as the weather was very cold, he went into a baker's shop to warm himself. The baker's wife being, I suppose, rather a cross dame, said sharply. "Soldiers have no business to come into poor people's houses." "Don't be angry," said the emperor, "I am an old soldier, who have spent all my fortune in the service of that rascal Rodolf, and now he suffers me to be in want." "If you serve that fellow," replied the woman, "you deserve all your misfortunes;" and she burst forth into the most violent invectives against the emperor, little thinking to whom she was addressing herself, and, at last, she threw a pail of water on the fire, to raise a smoke, and force her guest to leave the shop, which he did, laughing to himself at what had passed.

When he sat down to dinner, he desired his hostess to send a boar's head and a bottle of wine to the baker's wife, with some message from himself, by which she discovered the mistake she had committed, and being greatly terrified, came in haste, to solicit his pardon. Rodolf gravely replied, that he would forgive her, but on one condition, which was, that she should repeat before all the gentlemen present, every thing she had

said of him in the morning; which she did, to the infinite amusement of the company.

This great and good prince died in the year 1291, after a reign of eighteen years, aged seventy three, leaving behind him a name scarcely equalled, certainly not surpassed, in modern history. He had never visited Italy, for he wisely considered that it was better to spend his time in doing good for his own country, than in fighting to preserve the mere name of king in a foreign state, which was growing too powerful to allow the emperors more than a nominal authority. Rodolf was contemporary with our Edward the First.

FROM THE DEATH OF RODOLF,
TO THE ACCESSION OF
CHARLES THE FOURTH.

~~1291 TO 1347.~~

Much as Rodolph had been beloved and respected, his son was not chosen to succeed him, because the electors thought the empire would be better governed by Adolphus, count of Nassau, who was therefore elected, to the great mortification of Albert, duke of Austria, the son of the late emperor, who went to war with him. The government of Adolphus did not give general satisfaction. During the seven years that he occupied the

throne of Germany, the Jews were so cruelly treated in all the towns, that many in despair, destroyed themselves and their families, to avoid the dreadful persecution, to which they were subjected.

Adolphus of Nassau was deposed, after having reigned seven years, when Albert was elected, and very soon afterwards slew the deposed emperor in battle, with his own hand.

The most remarkable event that took place in the time of Albert the First, was the foundation of the Republic of Switzerland, which had hitherto been dependent on the empire, and would probably have remained so, but for the tyranny of the governors placed over the towns by the emperor.

The Swiss had long dwelt happily, in their wild mountainous country, living frugally by the labour of their hands, and enjoying so large a share of freedom, that they had scarcely felt their subjection. Many of their towns were free and imperial cities, and their rights and privileges had been firmly defended by the emperor Rodolf, against some of the nobles, who had attempted to infringe on them. The Swiss were an industrious, simple-hearted, but uninstructed race of people, tenacious of their liberty, and brave to excess.

The Emperor Albert, however, wanted to be absolute lord over the country, but finding the Swiss determined to resist so great an encroachment on their freedom, he appointed governors in all the towns, who, by means of a military force, were able to conduct themselves in the most tyrannical manner. Some brave patriots, amongst whom was the celebrated William Tell, then leagued together to free their country from the Austrian government, and having formed their plan, the inhabitants of

the three cantons of Uri, Schwitz, and Underwalden, all rose in revolt at the same time, and expelled the Austrians from the country.

These three provinces having obtained their liberty, the others soon followed their example, and from this beginning, Switzerland in time arose to the rank of an independent republic. The emperor Albert endeavoured to re-establish his authority, but while heading his army against the Swiss, he was assassinated by his nephew the duke of Swabia, whom he had unjustly deprived of his inheritance.

The duke, it seems, had so well dissembled his resentment, that Albert had not the least suspicion of his treacherous design, and being encamped with his army on the bank of a small river, near the ancient domain of Hapsburg, he incautiously crossed the stream, attended only by the duke and two other noblemen, who were in the plot.

As they rode slowly through the fields at the foot of the castle, engaged in conversation, the duke suddenly seized his uncle's bridle, exclaiming, "Will you now give me back my inheritance?" and without waiting for a reply, plunged a dagger into the neck of the unfortunate emperor, who fell from his horse, in the sight of his son and the whole army, who were on the opposite side of the river. The conspirators instantly fled, and their victim expired in the arms of a poor woman, who happened to be passing by and stopped to render him assistance.

Such was the tragical fate of Albert the First, whose death was not lamented, for he had never been a popular sovereign; therefore, the people did not make choice of his son for their next emperor, but elected Henry,



Emperor by J. M. G.

THE MURALS OF ALBERT THE FIRST EMPEROR OF GERMANY
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THE SONGS OF A VILLAGE IN TURKEY - MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS

Count of Luxemburg, under the title of Henry the Seventh, who reigned only six years, the chief part of which he spent in Italy, trying to revive the authority of the German emperors over that country.

The premature death of Henry the Seventh, which was attributed to poison, threw the empire again into confusion, and caused a civil war, which lasted several years. The reason of the war was this:—As soon as Henry the Seventh was dead, Frederick, duke of Austria, the son of Albert, and Louis of Bavaria, another grandson of Rodolf, came forward as competitors for the crown.

The dispute between them was not decided, as on former occasions, by the Diet; but those princes who were friendly to Louis, assembled at Aix la Chapelle, and crowned him there; while the partisans of Frederick held an assembly at Cologne, in which they declared him emperor, and his coronation was performed in that city. Then a furious civil war commenced, both in Germany and Italy, the adherents of the two princes reviving the names of Guelphs and Ghibelins.

It was in the year 1314 that this war commenced, and it went on for eight years before either party gained any decided advantage, when the battle of Muldorf, won by Louis, decided the contest in his favour, and Frederick, being made prisoner, died in confinement. This unfortunate prince is represented as having been so handsome, so brave, so accomplished, and well beloved, that his first wife died in consequence of grieving for his absence; and his second, after he was made captive, wept so incessantly, that she became blind.

It was during the wars between Louis and Frederick, that the Swiss, who had fought above fifty battles with

the Austrians, fully established their independence, which they have preserved ever since. The emperor Louis had some quarrels with the pope, in consequence of which a law was passed in this reign, by which the empire of Germany was made entirely independent of papal authority.

For some years after this, the Germans enjoyed a degree of tranquillity, to which they had long been strangers. Tournaments, which had been discontinued in Germany for nearly four hundred years, were now revived with great splendour. The citizens were opulent; above two hundred free cities were governed by their own laws; the mechanical arts had made more progress than in any other country, for the Germans were then, as they still are, extremely ingenious, and to them is attributed the discovery of gunpowder, about this time; for although its composition was certainly known to Roger Bacon a century before, it was a German monk, or an apothecary, named Barthold Schwartz, who first made known its destructive properties. Cannons, then called bombards, were soon afterwards invented.

At this period, the law was beginning to be studied as a profession, which opened a new and honourable employment for the younger sons of the nobility, who had hitherto been driven, for want of fitting occupation, to seek in the wars a refuge from the monotony of an idle life. Instead of being rough soldiers, many men now became learned lawyers. Colleges were instituted in many places; young men imbibed a taste for science and literature; and the manners of society, generally, began to be softened and improved.

The Germans, however, still had many customs that were very nearly allied to those of barbarism, among

which, was the installation of dukes and barons, on their coming into possession of a fief. When a great fief became vacant, by the death of its possessor, and there was no direct heir, the emperor had the right of investing a new vassal, which was always done with particular ceremonies, as thus: a platform being erected on some open space of ground, the emperor took his seat upon it, arrayed in his robes of state, surrounded by the electors, and many princes of the empire.

The nobleman on whom the fief was to be bestowed, appeared before the platform on horseback, attended by his friends, and a train of vassals; and on a given signal, the whole party galloped round the platform to the sound of drums and trumpets, but bearing no banners. Again they performed the same evolution, displaying the banner of the chief; and a third time they galloped round, carrying a new banner, decorated with the arms of the state of which he was about to become the lord.

When these three courses had been made, he dismounted, and ascended the platform, conducted by two princes, where, kneeling before the throne, he performed the act of homage, which was done by placing his hands between those of the sovereign, and swearing to obey him as his vassal. Then the emperor invested him with the fief, by delivering to him all the old banners belonging to it, which were thrown among the crowd, who tore them to pieces.

This mode of investing with fiefs, by the delivery of banners, was a very ancient custom in Germany; and as every large fief contained several smaller ones, and each inferior vassal had his banner; all these banners were collected and destroyed, on the investiture of a fresh

lord, who bestowed new ones in their stead, on his future dependants, who, in receiving them, acknowledged his superiority.

There was a very peculiar custom belonging to the duchy of Carinthia, the dukes of which were not installed by the emperor, but were obliged to make a pretence of purchasing their lands from the people. How this custom originated, I cannot tell you, but the description of the manner in which it was observed is very amusing. When a duke of Carinthia died, and the heir was to be put in possession of the duchy, the people chose some free peasant to be their representative, of whom the new duke was to buy his territories.

The right of representation belonged to one particular family, who had possessed it for many generations, and it was considered a great honour, besides having some emoluments attached to it. On the day appointed, the peasant was conducted to the place of inauguration, where he took his seat on a large block of marble, that stood under a tree, and was used only on these occasions. Crowds of country folks assembled to await the coming of the new duke, who approached on foot, dressed in the garb of a countryman, carrying a crook, a spade, and a wallet, filled with bread and cheese. He was conducted by two noblemen on foot, and followed by all the knights and nobles of the province on horseback, in splendid array, bearing the flags and banners of the duchy.

The peasant who was seated on the marble seat, in affected astonishment, then said to those around him, "Who comes hither in such state?" to which they replied, "The prince of the country." "Is he a good man, and just, and a Christian prince?" demanded the peasant. The answer, of course, was, "Yes, he is."

"Then," said the peasant, "by what right will he remove me from this seat?" "He will buy it of thee for sixty pence," was the reply; on which the peasant gave up his seat to the duke, being entitled, for his part in this curious scene, to the clothes worn by the prince, the sixty pence promised, and the liberty of living rent free, and paying no taxes.

The duke having taken his seat, received the homage of his vassals, and promised justice to the people, proceeded to the church, to hear mass, attended by the whole procession, and finished the ceremony by dining in state with all the nobles. The duchy of Carinthia was one of the great provinces taken from Ottocar of Bohemia, by Rodolf of Hapsburg.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF

CHARLES THE FOURTH,

TO THAT OF

FREDERICK THE THIRD.

1347 TO 1440.

You may remember that Ottocar, the king of Bohemia, had a son, who married a daughter of the emperor Rodolf. This son, whose name was John, became king of Bohemia, at his father's death, and was killed at the battle of Cressy, by the Black Prince, who, it is said,

took three ostrich feathers from the helmet of the fallen monarch, and placed them in his own, as a trophy of his victory; since which, the crest that surmounts the arms of the princes of Wales, has been a plume of three feathers.

The son and heir of John, was Charles, margrave of Moravia, who, as being grandson of Rodolf, was now elected emperor of Germany, and thus the crown of Bohemia was united to that of the empire. Charles the Fourth was not a very distinguished character, still he rendered his name famous, by making a law called the Golden Bull, by which rules were established for the election of all future emperors, and the number of electors, which had often been a subject of dispute, was limited to seven.

This celebrated law was called the Golden Bull because every copy, distributed by the emperor, had a seal of gold attached to it. The best thing that can be said of Charles the Fourth is, that he was an encourager of learning, and founded the university of Prague, which contributed greatly towards the advancement of the youth of Bohemia, in knowledge and refinement. Charles died in 1378, having reigned thirty-one years, and was succeeded in Bohemia and Germany by his eldest son Wenceslaus; the rest of his dominions being divided between his two younger sons, Sigismund and John.

The reign of Wenceslaus was most remarkable, owing, in great measure, to his personal character, which was marked by eccentricities of the most extraordinary kind. He was fond of low company, was violent in temper, cruel and indolent; and, added to his other bad qualities, his love of drinking was so great, "that he was scarcely ever sober. Among many instances of his

fantastic caprice and horrible cruelty, it was asserted that he ordered his cook to be roasted alive, because he had sent up a bad ragout to his table.

Wenceslaus was attached to his native country of Bohemia, but was utterly indifferent to the affairs of Germany, to which nothing could induce him to pay the slightest attention. In consequence of this neglect every thing fell into sad confusion, for although the government of a bad man is not very desirable, still there was a great deal of public business that could not be transacted without the presence, or sanction at least, of the emperor; therefore, it was necessarily left undone, to the great detriment of the people at large. Deputies were sent repeatedly by the Diet into Bohemia, to request that he would return to Germany, if it were only for a short time, to settle some very pressing business; but all the answer they could obtain was, that he did not see what business there could be for him to settle, and that if the princes wanted any thing done, they must come to him, for he thought he had done quite enough for them in accepting the crown.

The Germans, at last, were so incensed at his conduct, that they declared he was no longer emperor, and elected in his stead, Rupert, count Palatine of the Rhine; but Rupert was not a prince of sufficient energy to remedy the disorders consequent on the bad government, or rather on the want of government, which had afforded an opportunity to such as were inclined, of renewing those depredations which had brought the country to a miserable state, during the long anarchy.

The citizens were frequently armed against the nobles; the nobles against each other. Castles were plundered and razed to the ground; and robberies were

committed on the highways, in open day. It required a prince like Rodolf to restore good order; one who knew how to govern well, and to make himself obeyed; and as the emperor now chosen, was not thus qualified, there was no improvement in the state of the country during the ten years of his rule.

In the meantime Wenceslaus had retained his kingdom of Bohemia, and was so little grieved at the loss of the empire, that when told he was deposed, he said he was glad of it, as it would save him a great deal of trouble; and when some of the imperial cities made professions of their fidelity, he said very coolly that the only proof he desired of their attachment was, that they would send him some butts of their very best wine,

The bad conduct of this sovereign at last exhausted the patience of his own subjects of Bohemia to such a degree, that he was put into one of the public prisons at Prague, where he was actually kept on bread and water, like any other prisoner, until he managed to effect his escape, and reach a fortress, the governor of which he knew was in his interest, and he was very soon at the head of his kingdom again.

It was while Wenceslaus was reigning in Bohemia, Sigismund his brother, in Hungary, and Rupert in Germany, that a change in religion was attempted by two churchmen, named John Huss, and Jerome of Prague. They were learned men, and had adopted the same opinions as those of the celebrated Wycliffe, who, about the same time, began to preach in England, against some of the rules of the Catholic church, and the power assumed by the pope in affairs unconnected with the church.

This was the true beginning of the Reformation, and

the Hussites were as much persecuted in Hungary and Bohemia, as the Lollards were in England during the reigns of Henry the Fourth and Henry the Fifth. While John Huss was endeavouring to make converts to his new doctrines, Rupert the emperor died, and Sigismund, king of Hungary, was elected to the imperial throne, Wenceslaus still retaining the crown of Bohemia. The reign of Sigismund has gained a melancholy notoriety, by the religious wars begun in consequence of the preaching of John Huss, who was tried by a council of the cardinals and bishops held at Constance, where he was condemned to suffer death by the cruel mode then so common, of being burnt alive; and Jerome of Prague soon afterwards shared the same fate.

The Hussites, enraged at the death of their apostle, formed themselves into an army, headed by a brave Bohemian, named Ziska, who, after the death of Wenceslaus, made himself master of Bohemia, and carried on war with the Emperor Sigismund, for several years. At length this warlike chief died, and it is said that, by his own desire, a drum was made of his skin, which was to be sounded whenever a victory was gained.

The war continued seventeen years, when Sigismund restored peace, by granting a general pardon, and making some concessions to the Hussites; which relieved them from the mortification of feelings to which they had been forced to submit; and thus Bohemia was re-united to the German empire. It was during this war that, in consequence of the repeated victories gained by the fierce and warlike Bohemians, a proposition was made in the Diet, for the establishment of a standing army, which, after some opposition, was consented to, and a tax was levied on the inhabitants of every state, from

the prince to the peasant, for the support of the soldiers. A curious anecdote is told during this reign of one Stibor, a Polish knight, who, in reward for his services in Hungary, received from the Emperor Sigismund a large grant of lands, and castles belonging thereto. In one of the intervals of peace, when the warriors of those days scarcely knew how to while away the time, Stibor's jester one day amused him so well, that the knight told him he might desire what he would, and it should be granted. "Then build me, in one year, a castle at the top of yon rock," said the jester, pointing to the rock of Betzko, a rugged and perpendicular height, the summit of which appeared inaccessible.

Every one said it was impossible to do so, except Stibor, who declared it should be done, so he set men to work, and building materials were dragged up the sides of the rock; but as the men did not proceed fast enough for the accomplishment of the work within the given time, all travellers were stopped and forced to lend their aid, by sparing their horses for a week, by which means the castle was completed within the year, when Stibor persuaded his jester to take some land instead of it, that he himself might occupy the castle of Betzko. The ruins of this castle are still standing near the frontiers of Poland and Bohemia.

The Turks, at this time, were beginning to be very troublesome enemies to the German emperors, frequently invading Hungary, and the neighbouring states; and in order to repel these formidable invaders, Sigismund enlisted into his armies, numbers of the Hussites, with whom, as we have before observed, he had made peace.

The seat of the Turkish empire had been established, at the close of the thirteenth century, in Asia Minor, by

the Sultan Othman, from whom it took the name of the Ottoman empire, which it still retains. The successors of Othman, towards the middle of the fourteenth century, passed into Europe, where they extended their dominions by conquests over the Greeks, and were endeavouring to make still further progress, and to spread their religion by the sword, according to the command of their prophet Mohammed. In the time of Sigismund, the Sultan Amurath led his Musselman armies into the Hungarian territories, but was several times defeated by the emperor; and after the death of Sigismund, which happened in the year 1437, his son-in-law and successor, Albert, duke of Austria, conducted an expedition against the Turks in Bulgaria, where he died, after a brief reign of two years.

The late emperor left an infant son named Ladislas, who was by right king of Hungary and Bohemia, and duke of Austria; for all these dominions were hereditary, although the crown of the empire was elective. But Ladislas was only a few months old, and the Hungarians objected to having an infant for their sovereign; therefore they sent an embassy to the king of Poland, to offer him the crown, which he readily accepted. As a part of the people, however, did not approve of this measure, it occasioned a civil war; which was carried on till the pope managed to settle the difference, by persuading both parties to agree that the king of Poland should govern Hungary during the minority of Ladislas, who was placed under the guardianship of Frederick his cousin, the newly-elected emperor.

In Bohemia, affairs were not quite so amicably arranged, for although it was settled that a regent should be chosen to govern for the infant prince, the choice of

the regent was a matter of dispute, one party electing a Hussite, the other a Catholic; wherefore the two regents went to war, and the Hussite regent, a warlike nobleman named Podiebrad, obtained the sovereign power in Bohemia.

FREDERICK THE THIRD.

1440 TO 1493.

IT is now time to speak of the emperor Frederick the Third, whose reign was the longest of any in the annals of the German empire, yet he was not a man who was either beloved or respected; for he was mean, selfish, and narrow minded; and, as some writer humorously observes, was more anxious about his cabbages, than his subjects. However he was not a bad man, and if he did but little good, at least he did no harm; and as the crown was forced upon him against his inclination, he perhaps thought he was not called upon to give up his favourite pursuits to attend to duties that were neither to his taste, nor of his own seeking.

One reason given for the unwillingness of Frederick to accept the imperial throne, was his parsimonious temper, which made him fearful of having to spend any part of his private fortune in supporting the dignity of his high station, for the revenues of the crown were at this time very small.

The second year of the reign of this emperor is memorable, as being that in which the Art of Printing was first made known in Europe; and although the precise date of this valuable invention, the name of its original inventor, and the place where the art was first practised, are still matters of dispute; it is certain that the earliest printing presses, of which we have any certain knowledge, were set up at Mentz and Strasburg, and the first known printers, were two Germans; one named Faust, the other Guttenburg.

This may be called the true era of civilization in Europe; for as long as the greater part of the community was without the means of acquiring learning, owing to the scarcity and dearness of books, there could be but very few, in proportion to the whole population of Europe, whose minds were much enlightened by study.

Much had been done towards the improvement of the wealthy classes, by the institution of colleges, where youth were instructed by lectures on different sciences; but there is no method of acquiring knowledge so effective as reading, as was sufficiently testified by the rapid progress of education, and consequently in refinement of manners, throughout Europe, after the introduction of printing by the Germans in the time of Frederick the Third.

The law of partition, with regard to inheritance, still existed in Germany, so that the number of dukes, counts, and barons, was multiplied continually; and as their numbers increased, so did their poverty, for while there was a rood of land to divide, it was shared among brothers, who all took the title of their father; and

considered themselves equal in rank to him, although many of them had but a small patch of ground, and no better habitation than a mean and perhaps dilapidated fort on the summit of some hill.

All these poor princes depended for subsistence on their swords, and were ready to enter the service of any greater prince who would pay them well; so that the chief part of the German nobles were soldiers fighting for pay, in the armies of the different sovereigns. This was all the better for the rural population, for a great number of the princes, on finding their inheritance so small that they could not live upon it, would sell it to one or more of their peasants, who thus became small landed proprietors, with little farms of their own.

In the meantime the young prince Ladislas was growing up under the guardianship of the emperor; and as the king of Poland and Hungary was killed in a battle against the Turks, the Hungarians sent for Ladislas to take possession of the throne, to which he was entitled; but Frederick would not give him up, because while he retained the wardenship of his person, he took the chief part of the profits of his estates, for Ladislas, you may remember, was heir to the Austrian dominions. The Hungarians, being irritated at the emperor's refusal, went to war with him, and forced him to deliver up his ward, who was conducted in triumph to Prague, and crowned king of Hungary and Bohemia.

The youthful sovereign, however, soon made himself very unpopular, for, with a vanity and presumption not uncommon at his age, he fancied he must be a very important person, because two nations had gone to war upon his account, forgetting that they were not actuated by his merits, with which, if he had any, they were

totally unacquainted; but that he owed their favour entirely to the circumstance of his being the son of their late king, Albert.

This prince lived only seven years after his elevation to the throne, and at his death the emperor ought to have succeeded to all his possessions. However, as he was no favourite, either in Bohemia, or Hungary, the Bohemians chose Podiebrad, their former regent, who was a great military commander, to rule over them; and the Hungarians elected Mathias, the son of John Huniades, a celebrated Hungarian general, who gained great renown by his victories over the Turks.

Then the Austrian states were usurped by the emperor's brother, Albert, and Frederick made no attempt either to preserve, or to recover them; for he was no hero, and would rather have lost all his dominions, than have fought a single battle in their defence. So little spirit indeed had he, and so much avarice, that when he found the people of Hungary and Bohemia were not well inclined towards him; he sold the crowns of those countries to Podiebrad, and Mathias, being quite contented to accept a sum of money in their stead.

Before the death of Frederick, both these kingdoms were annexed to Poland, in consequence of the people electing, on the death of their respective sovereigns, Ladislas, the prince of Poland, for their king. But while some states were separated from the empire, others were added to it, by the marriage of the emperor's son Maximilian, with the rich heiress, Mary of Burgundy, daughter of Charles the Bold.

Her father was the celebrated duke of Burgundy, the rival and foe, of Louis the eleventh of France. He was killed in an attempt to subjugate the Swiss, who had

now entirely established their independence, and his daughter Mary, who was his only child, became heiress to all his dominions, which were nearly as extensive as those of the king of France, who was therefore very desirous that she should consent to be affianced to his son, a child of eight years of age; but the young duchess had already made her own choice, and married Maximilian of Germany. Maximilian it is said, was so improvident, that he was always without money, and wore such shabby clothes when he was going to be married, that his bride was ashamed of his appearance, and actually gave him money to furnish himself with better apparel.

Louis the eleventh being very angry that Mary had chosen to form an alliance with Germany, instead of France; seized on the duchy of Burgundy, and other French territories which had belonged to Charles the Bold, pretending that they were fiefs, that could not be inherited by a female, and consequently became the property of the French crown; but he could not deprive the young heiress of the Netherlands and Flanders; and after her marriage with Maximilian, that prince went to war with Louis, and recovered nearly the whole of his wife's inheritance.

It was at this time that Ferdinand and Isabella, the sovereigns of Spain, were in treaty with Christopher Columbus, respecting his projected voyage of discovery; and it was in the year preceding the death of Frederick the Third, that this enterprising navigator embarked on the Atlantic ocean, hitherto unexplored, and believed to lead to seas without end; and about the time when Maximilian became emperor of Germany, the existence of America was first made known to the inhabitants of Europe.

At this period, the favourite studies of the learned in Germany were chemistry, or alchemy, astrology, and astronomy. The first was pursued with great avidity, for there were many who believed that it was possible to make a compound which would prevent people from growing old, and enable them to live for ever, and there were men who actually spent their lives in trying to discover the ingredients for producing this wonderful elixir, which they termed the elixir of life.

There were others also, who were equally anxious to find out what they called the philosopher's stone, supposed to be some chemical preparation, that should possess the extraordinary quality of turning inferior metals into gold; but neither the philosopher's stone, nor the elixir of life, were ever discovered; notwithstanding the profound studies of some of the greatest scholars of the age.

You will perhaps doubt the possibility of talented men putting faith in such absurdities; which nevertheless were productive of unlooked for, but most important, results; for the alchemists, by their experiments on the analyzation and combination of bodies, gave a gradual existence to chemistry, so that we may actually regard them as the first founders of that science, from which we now enjoy so many useful and elegant advantages, which may be traced from the simple process of printing calicoes, to that of illuminating our streets with gas. Whilst the astrologers by their patient investigation of the heavens, and their curious calculations and deductions, on the unerring movements of the celestial bodies, by degrees converted an uncertain, into a certain, science, and astrology was converted into astronomy.

This search after the philosopher's stone, and the other mysteries of alchemy, was not always unconnected

with a belief in supernatural powers. Indeed, in those days, the faith in magic was almost universal. Frederick the Third was very much attached to the mystical studies, probably because he thought they might lead to the power of converting base metal into gold; and Maximilian had a secretary named Cornelius Agrippa, who was a great philosopher, and a very celebrated alchemist, and was generally believed to be skilled in magic.

Francis the First, of France, who, in common with the rest of the world, believed in astrology, invited Agrippa to his court, hoping the philosopher would give him a glimpse into future events; but Agrippa, who pretended to no such arts, soon lost the favour of the French monarch, who thought he had the power, but not the will, to foretell his destiny; so after having employed threats and promises to no purpose, he dismissed him with anger from his court.

I have dwelt thus on this subject, to show you that although science and learning were beginning to make great progress, they were mingled with former superstitions, and consequently often directed towards vain and idle pursuits. It was only by degrees that people learned to judge of all things by the light of reason, and to know that the events of this world all arise from natural causes. I think we may very reasonably account for the influence of superstition up to this period, from the uncertainty that existed with regard to the limits of the earth, for we must remember we have but just reached the time when the adventurous spirit of Columbus led him to attempt what no man had ever attempted before, and it was first made known to the astonished inhabitants of Europe, that there was a large country beyond the Atlantic Ocean, peopled with

human beings like themselves, though in a less civilised state.

Before this discovery, no one knew whither these seas led, or what was beyond them; therefore, it is not to be wondered at, that they who believed in magic should also fancy there might be a world beyond the great ocean, inhabited by beings of a different nature from themselves. The discoveries of Columbus, however, and the subsequent progress of navigation, dispelled, in a few years, the superstitions of ages, by showing that every part of the world may be visited by the aid of ships, and that it contains no Fairy Land.

MAXIMILIAN THE FIRST.

1493 TO 1519.

AMONG the events that had contributed to produce a change in the state of society, was the discovery of gunpowder, and in no country was this change more felt than in Germany, where the nobles had always possessed the right of private warfare. This had always been regarded as one of their greatest privileges from time immemorial, and was not only carried on among themselves, but either of them might declare war against even the emperor, which was not considered in the light of treason, as in other countries.

The mode was, to send a defiance, thus:—“ Most gra-

cious prince, I, such an one, make known to your royal grace that I will no longer obey you, but will be your enemy, and so do your subjects all the mischief in my power."

Then the emperor had to take the field against this refractory noble, as though he had been a foreign enemy. These defiances were frequently sent to the cities, and as soon as war was so declared, each party had a right to attack the other, on the highways, or wherever they might be met with, and rob and kill them without subjecting themselves to any punishment, as it was lawful warfare. Every nobleman could lay siege to a town, or to the castle of another nobleman, and very often these wars were begun on the most frivolous pretences. For instance, a young count sent a defiance to the city of Frankfort, because a young lady residing in that town refused, at a ball, to dance with his uncle; which he looked upon as an insult to the dignity of his family.

This pernicious custom, by keeping up a spirit of ferocity among the Germans, had been a great obstacle to the progress of politeness and refinement among them. The evil had for some time been gradually increasing, but in proportion as the use of cannon became more common, for neither castles nor cities had walls strong enough to resist these terrible engines, against which, swords, that used to be every man's defence and protection, were of no avail, the princes of the empire began to see the necessity of putting an end to the system of private warfare, which was abolished in the Diet, two years after the accession of Maximilian the First; a law being passed, by which any nobleman sending a challenge, was to be banished from the empire.

In this reign was also abolished, the secret tribunal of Westphalia, of which I will presently give you an account; and two new Courts of Justice, were instituted, the one called the Imperial Chamber, and the other the Aulic Council, both of which were intended to enforce the laws, and preserve the public peace. But the most important event that took place in the time of Maximilian the First, was the commencement of the Reformation, in Saxony, by Martin Luther, who began to preach against the forms of the Catholic church, and very soon made a great number of converts.

This was the origin of far more dreadful civil wars, than any that had been carried on by the German princes; wars that occasioned many long years of misery, in almost every country of Europe. The pope, Leo the Tenth, who was a great patron of learning and the fine arts, was at this time engaged in building the magnificent church of St. Peter's at Rome, and to raise money for its completion, he sent a number of Dominican friars, into Germany, and other countries, to preach indulgences, which many people thought was a pernicious privilege. Among others who were of this opinion, was Luther, a monk of the Augustine order, who expressed his sentiments on the subject; who when he found there were persons ready to support him, preached publicly against the right of the pope to grant indulgences, or to assume any more power than that possessed by the ordinary bishops.

These opinions spread very rapidly, not only in Germany, but in the Netherlands, and other Northern Nations and with some variations, in France, Switzerland, England, and Scotland. In some of these countries the Catholic religion was almost totally

abolished; in others, some of the people adopted the new faith, while others adhered to the old. This was the case in Germany; and the violent enmity that arose between the two parties, was the cause of the long and melancholy wars in that country, which I shall presently have occasion to narrate.

In the meantime, the Emperor Maximilian died, and was succeeded by his grandson, Charles the Fifth, who was already king of Spain, by the death of his other grandfather, Ferdinand, of Castile.

I ought to inform you how Charles the Fifth, who was also king of the Netherlands, came into possession of such extensive territories. Maximilian and Mary of Burgundy, had one son, Philip, archduke of Austria, who married Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, of Spain; and this princess, on the death of her husband, became governess of the Netherlands, which Philip had inherited in right of his mother, Mary of Burgundy, who was dead.

Joanna was a very amiable woman, but had all her life been subject to fits of mental derangement, which rendered her incapable of conducting the government, which in consequence, devolved on her son Charles, who was heir to both his grandfathers, and succeeded to the throne of Spain, and the kingdom of Naples, about three years before the death of Maximilian.

The crown of Germany, however, being elective, was always open to competition; and when the emperor died, Francis the First, the young and high spirited king of France, offered himself as a candidate, but Charles was elected, as appeared most natural, not only from his near relationship to the deceased emperor, but because he was already sovereign of a part of Germany, since

the Austrian dominions were his lawful inheritance. Francis was highly displeased at the decision of the electors, and these two princes, whose quarrels kept the whole of Europe in a state of confusion, were enemies and rivals, as long as they both lived.

SECRET TRIBUNALS OF WESTPHALIA.

IT is now time to speak of an institution, which, from its fearful nature and the secrecy with which it was conducted, inspired as much terror in Germany, during the middle ages, as did the Inquisition in Spain at a later period; I allude to the secret tribunals of Westphalia which fell into decay, about the time when the Inquisition was established.

These terrible courts of justice are supposed, by some, to have had their origin as early as the time of Charlemagne, but there seems more reason to believe they did not exist till the fall of Henry the Lion, when a very large extent of territory was divided into a great number of small states. Many of these states were comprehended in the country of Westphalia, then called the Red Land, though, for what reason, is not exactly known; and in each of these states, and, indeed, in every district all over Westphalia, was held a court of justice, called a Fehm council or secret tribunal, which assembled at any time and in any place, which the judges thought proper to appoint. All the members of the Fehm court

were initiated with certain ceremonies, and had a secret sign, by which they knew each other, like the free-masons', and other secret societies.

The count of the district was usually the chief judge, and under him, were inferior judges and clerks, and a numerous body of assistants called Schoppen, whose duty it was to search out offenders, and bring them before the tribunal. Every individual, when made a member of this court, was bound by a solemn oath not to reveal any of its secrets; and so terrible was the punishment denounced against any one who should break this oath, that it is said, no instance of its violation was ever known.

The initiated, that is, the members of the Fehm courts, never told even their nearest relatives that they had been admitted into the society; so that a man's own brother, or next door neighbour, might be one of the schoppen, without his being aware of the fact, and might be watching his words and actions, even while feasting at his board; for it was immaterial how near the relationship, or how strong the friendship between them, might be, he who belonged to the council was obliged to give an account to his superiors of every crime he discovered, and the offender was then summoned to appear at a certain time and place named, to be carried before the judges of the Fehm court, to answer the charge.

This notice was either fixed on his door in the night, or laid in his way, by some means that made it impossible for him to tell how it had reached him, or who was his accuser. If he neglected the summons, his death was certain, for then the whole body of the schoppen were directed to be on the watch, and to hang him on

the nearest tree, without any trial, the moment he was taken. Escape, in this case, was impossible; for there were, during a long period, as many as a hundred thousand members of these courts, who recognised each other, as I said before, by a sign known only to themselves. Some say, that this sign was made at table, by a particular manner of holding the knife, so that the initiated could tell, by looking round the table, how many members of the secret tribunal were present, although the rest of the company would not remark any thing particular in their conduct,

When a man was "forfehmed," that is, when he was summoned to appear before the secret tribunal, no one dared to endeavour to conceal him, as such an attempt would have been surely detected; and then the good-natured friend would have been considered as guilty as the culprit, and have been forfehmed also.

The Fehm courts were held in places where strangers could not obtain admittance, except by stealth; and if any person, from curiosity, was so imprudent as to run the risk, and was discovered, he was instantly put to death. Some say, these councils were always held underground; and, I believe it is true, that there were houses in Westphalia, with vaults beneath them, that were sometimes used for that purpose; but, very often, the Fehm courts were held in the open air, usually in some church-yard, the count presiding at a table, on which were laid a sword and a halter, and the clerks standing on each side, habited in black cloaks and bare-headed. If the accused were found guilty, he was instantly hanged; if not, he was set at liberty, on making a solemn promise never to disclose what he had seen and heard; a promise that was always faith-

fully kept, for certain death was the consequence of breaking it.

Such was the nature of the secret tribunals of Westphalia, and, perhaps, in a country like Germany, where so many crimes were committed, and the laws, at times, so little regarded, these courts were useful, because the people were deeply in fear of them. You may imagine the dread in which they were held, when no one ventured to speak of them, or even to hint at a knowledge of their existence, by the most distant allusion.

In time, these councils were held in other parts of Germany; for instance, there was one at Zell, in Hanover, as late as the year 1608, and although its proceedings were rather different from those of the Fehm courts, still it was of the same nature; for the accusations were made secretly; and when it was considered that the list of offences in any district was long enough to require the holding of a court, a notice was posted up in some public place to that effect, and the time being named, all the inhabitants were bound to appear.

At this unwelcome summons, every body repaired mournfully to the appointed spot, which was some large open space, where long tables were placed in the midst, at which sat the prince and his councillors, while the trembling people sat on the ground in anxious suspense, no one knowing who were to be accused, or of what. The secret judges then delivered a paper, with the names of the offenders, and the nature of their offences, to the prince; and going round with white wands in their hands, touched the suspected parties, who were then at liberty to get up, and without further explanation, to leave the country within twenty-four hours.

If a man were conscious that he had been guilty of

some great crime, this was his best way; for if the judges were quite certain of his guilt, and he sat still without taking any notice of the hint to be gone, he was hanged instantly. Of course, any person, whose conscience was clear, on receiving a touch with the wand, was allowed to make his defence; or, if his offence were too trivial to deserve so heavy a punishment as exile, a light touch with the wand was a warning to him that he must mend his ways.

In Brunswick, where there was also a Fehm court, there were certain citizens secretly appointed to watch the conduct of the rest, and give information to the judges. No one knew who were the judges invested with this unpleasant office; but as soon as it was determined to hold a council, the gates of the town were closed, and every avenue was guarded, and then the inhabitants of the city knew that, when the bell tolled, they must all go to the market place to be judged by the Fehm council. Sometimes, if the secret judges knew that any friend was in the habit of doing wrong, they would merely put a mark on his door, as a warning, that if he continued so to act, he would subject himself to be cited before the court; but no such friendly hint was allowed in Westphalia.

The power of the secret tribunals became so great, that in the reign of Frederick the Third, the emperor, himself, was summoned to appear before it; and although he took no notice of so bold an act, it was a proof of what their judges dared to do.

In consequence of the good laws made by Maximilian, these courts lost much of their authority, and, consequently, of their terrors; and after the reign of Charles the Fifth, they were no longer heard of.

CHARLES THE FIFTH.

1519 TO 1558.

THE renown of Charles the Fifth depended so much on his warlike exploits, and he was so little in Germany, that although he is in himself a very celebrated character in history, his reign, as far as regards the German empire, is not remarkably interesting, and during the greater part of it, all the states were engaged in religious disputes.

Among the vast possessions inherited by Charles, must not be forgotten the newly-discovered countries in America, consisting, at the time of his accession, principally of the West Indies, to which were afterwards added the great empires of Peru and Mexico, conquered by Pizarro and Cortez.

Charles the Fifth, before his coronation, was obliged to sign a sort of compact between himself and the princes, settling the mode in which he was to govern the empire; so that although he was an absolute monarch in Spain, his power in Germany was very much restricted.

By this time, the new religion was almost established in Saxony, and some other states, and many monks and nuns had voluntarily quitted their convents to mingle again with the world; for they were not forcibly expelled, as they were in some countries. The emperor, who was no friend to the Reformation, would gladly have

stayed its progress; but this was impossible, for Luther continued to preach, and to gain new converts every day; and as some of the most powerful of the princes had adopted his opinions, he was sufficiently protected.

In the meantime, Charles and the king of France began to quarrel about some dominions in Italy; for when men are inclined to quarrel, it is always easy to find a reason for doing so; and as both were desirous of gaining the support and friendship of Henry the Eighth, king of England, who was one of the greatest princes of his time, they took great pains to please both him and his minister, Cardinal Wolsey; Charles by paying a visit to the English court; and Francis by giving splendid entertainments to king Henry, when he went over to Calais, with all his chief nobles and their ladies. So grand a display was made by the English, as well as the French, upon this occasion, that the meeting is generally known by the name of the Field of the Cloth of Gold.

Henry, however, did not interfere much with the two sovereigns, whose wars were carried on principally in Italy, where several famous battles were fought between them, particularly that of Pavia, where Francis was made prisoner, and detained in confinement two years at Madrid.

While these wars were going on, Solyman, the sultan of the Turks, surnamed the Magnificent, invaded Hungary, and made himself master of Belgrade, which was a very important place, because it had always been the chief barrier against the Turkish invasions. Solyman also took the island of Rhodes from the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, which made him a still more formidable foe to the Europeans; this island, as long as it remained in the hands of the Christians, being another

bulwark against the Turks. The emperor very much regretted this loss, and to compensate the Knights of St. John, he gave them the little island of Malta; after which, they were called Knights of Malta.

Soon after this, the sultan led his Turkish armies into Austria, where they made terrible havoc in the country, laying it waste with fire and sword, wherever they came. So great was the terror they inspired, that although the Catholic and Protestant princes of Germany were at war with each other, they all united to oppose the Musselman foe, and an immense force was raised, the emperor himself taking the command; but neither he nor the sultan were very desirous of risking a battle; therefore, Solyman withdrew his troops, and Germany was relieved, for a time, from these terrible invaders.

In the intervals of peace, Charles turned his attention towards the religious affairs of the country, for he began to be alarmed at finding that a great number of the free cities had abolished the Catholic form of worship, to adopt that recommended by Luther; therefore, in the hope of restoring the old religion, he issued a decree against the preaching of the new doctrines.

As soon as this decree was made known, the elector of Saxony, the duke of Lunenburg, and some other princes, with deputies from fourteen imperial cities, presented a protest against it, at the Diet of Augsburg, where the emperor presided in person; and on this account they received the name of Protestants; and the public declaration of their opinions, which was read in the Diet, is called the Confession of Augsburg.

Charles was about to have recourse to arms to enforce their obedience, and the Protestant princes had entered into a league for their mutual defence, when a fresh

alarm from the Turks engaged the emperor's attention in another direction. Solyman had given the command of his fleet to a notorious pirate named Barbarossa, who was sovereign of Algiers, and had also usurped the throne of Tunis, and driven its lawful king, Muley Hassan, into exile. This formidable chief, whose very name was a terror to all the Christian states bordering on the Mediterranean, had gained the favour of the sultan, who made him admiral of the Ottoman fleet, by which his power and pride were very much augmented.

Complaints were made continually to the emperor, of the violent deeds of Barbarossa, who seized on all the merchant vessels trading to Alexandria and other ports, and carried off all on board into slavery.

Interested by the misfortunes of Muley Hassan, and desirous of delivering Christian traders from so dangerous an enemy, Charles set sail for Tunis with a powerful armament, defeated Barbarossa in a pitched battle, restored Muley Hassan to his throne, and set at liberty above twenty thousand Christian captives. This was considered a very brilliant exploit, and raised the fame of Charles the Fifth throughout all Christendom; and deservedly, since he had fought in a good cause, and restored to their home and families so many suffering Europeans, who, but for him, might have languished in slavery all their lives, among a cruel people. But, his wars with Francis the First, which were renewed on his return, had no merit in them; they on the contrary, only served to ruin many fine and fertile provinces, and cause a melancholy waste of human life, for no better reason than to gratify the private animosity of two jealous princes, whose quarrels, the rest of the world had nothing to do with.

At last, the pope persuaded the rival monarchs to be friends; and as soon as peace was restored abroad, the emperor exerted himself to give tranquillity to Germany, by settling the differences between the Catholics and Protestants. With this view, he granted to every prince the liberty of establishing in his own states whichever religion he chose; and if any of his subjects differed, they might go to settle in any other state, where the people were of their way of thinking. Both parties were to be equally tolerated, and neither to interfere with the other, the Catholic being at the same time considered the established religion of the country.

Just before this, a revolution had happened in Hungary, where a prince, named John de Zcoli, had usurped the throne from the emperor's brother, Ferdinand, who had been made king of Bohemia and Hungary; and a war had been going on between the two countries in consequence. John was supported by Solyman, sultan of the Turks, whose vassal he had promised to be, which was a great advantage to the Turks, because it secured them a free passage through Hungary. John, however, died, leaving an infant son named John Sigismund, for whom the war was still carried on by the Turks, who took possession of the greatest part of Hungary, which was, in fact, united to the Ottoman empire, as Solyman was more truly its master than the young prince, whose cause he had espoused.

The Germans, during the Turkish invasions, suffered the most dreadful calamities, for the Turks were exceedingly fierce and cruel in their wars, and carried away numbers of women and children as slaves; nor did they confine their inroads to the kingdom of Hungary, but frequently marched into Austria, to the very gates of

Vienna; and as that town was not very well fortified, the walls being in a dilapidated state, and the suburbs very open and extensive, it was not easy to defend it from their attacks.

The good understanding between the Catholic and Protestant princes of Germany, was not of long duration; and the emperor himself, who took so much pains to effect the peace, was the first to break it, by again putting restrictions on the exercise of the Protestant religion.

In the course of the fresh wars that followed, the elector of Saxony, Frederick, an excellent prince, and one of the firmest supporters of the Protestant faith, was defeated and made prisoner by the emperor; who declared his dominions forfeited, and bestowed them on Prince Maurice of Saxony, a very celebrated character in the history of these times.

Immediately after the defeat of the elector, Charles marched to the gates of Wittenburg, then the capital of the Saxon states, and commanded the citizens to surrender; but the elector's wife, a woman of great spirit, encouraged them to resist, and declared she would defend the city to the last extremity.

The emperor being informed of this heroic resolution, ungenerously sent word to the lady, that if the gates were not immediately opened, her husband's head should be cut off; and by this unjust means he gained possession of the town. Maurice, the new elector, was no sooner invested with the power and dignity of his unfortunate cousin Frederick, than he turned against the emperor who had elevated him, gained several victories, and obliged him at last to sign a new treaty called the Interim, which again secured to the Protestants the rights granted to them on a former occasion.

I have said nothing here of Charles's government in Spain, or in the Netherlands, of which you must not forget he was the sovereign; and as I have related the principal events in Germany during the reign of this active prince, it now only remains to be said of him that, having grown tired of greatness, he resolved to spend the last years of his life in the peaceful retirement of a cloister; therefore, he sent for his son Philip, who was in England, having married our Queen Mary, and resigned to that prince all his dominions, except Germany, which he could not give to him, because his own brother Ferdinand had been elected king of the Romans long before, and would of course be chosen to fill the imperial throne. The self-deposed emperor then retired to a monastery in Spain, where he ended his days in the year 1558, two years after his abdication.

GERMANY, IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

NOTWITHSTANDING the disturbed state of the times, the polite arts had begun to make some progress in Germany, where several eminent painters and engravers had appeared; but it was chiefly in the mechanical arts that the Germans excelled, the towns being full of ingenious artisans of every kind. At Nuremberg, the people were famous for making wooden toys of every descrip-

tion, which were sold at all the fairs in Europe, and were even carried to India.

The demand for them was so great, that almost all the inhabitants of the villages dependent on Nuremberg, were toy-makers, and earned a very good living by their trade. This city was also celebrated for manufacturing and dyeing stuffs, as was the city of Augsburg for its gold and silver smiths, and jewellers, whose works were exported to every part of the world. The cities, particularly those of the Hanse league, were all rich and populous, governed by mayors or burgomasters, sheriffs, senators, and other magistrates, most of whom were elected annually.

There needs no greater proof of the wealth of the principal citizens, than an anecdote that is related respecting a merchant named Fugger, who resided at Augsburg, and lent the emperor Charles large sums of money for his expedition against Tunis. When the emperor returned to Germany, Fugger invited him to an entertainment at his house, and to testify his respect, made a large fire in his hall with cinnamon, which at that time was a very rare and costly commodity; and having done so, he threw all the bonds which the emperor had given him as a security for the payment of the debt, into the flame he had kindled at such a vast expense.

Germany had not many manufactures, being supplied from Antwerp with cloths, both linen and woollen, mercury, drugs, sugar, spices, tapestry, precious stones, &c., the produce of the Indies being obtained from Lisbon by the merchants of Antwerp. The goods exported from Germany consisted chiefly of metals, glass, dyeing drugs, saltpetre, toys, household goods, probably such as we call kitchen utensils, and great

quantities of Rhenish wine. There were shops in all the towns, such as those of butchers, bakers, wine venders, and other tradesmen, where the necessaries for every day's consumption might be bought; but the principal marts for all foreign merchandise were the fairs, held once or twice a year, in most of the great towns, and frequented by merchants from Italy and other countries, who brought to them rich and costly manufactures, which enabled the Germans to make a very splendid personal appearance.

With regard to the luxuries of dress and furniture, the progress was much the same as in other parts of Europe, for the improvements of one country soon found their way into others. It was about this time that coaches began to be used in the principal towns, and even for travelling, where the roads were good enough; but the litter, which I have before described, was still a usual and very convenient mode of conveyance; and we hear of the emperor Charles, when afflicted with the gout, being carried in a litter, and not of his riding in a carriage; therefore, it is very probable that carriages were very rare, although they certainly were known in Austria during his reign, and were probably copied from the two coaches made in Paris in the time of Francis the First, and which were the only two then existing in that country.

The German nobility, as well as the Italians of this period, were very costly in their attire, all their dresses being composed of velvet, satin, and silk, richly embroidered with gold, and adorned with jewels; velvet hats, with ostrich plumes, were generally worn by persons of rank; and about the time that silk stockings were introduced into Spain and England, which was

about twenty years after the death of Charles the Fifth, we also hear of their being worn in Germany.

The dress of a German nobleman in 1577, is thus described: he wore a doublet of blue satin, the sleeves and body slashed with crimson velvet, the slashes fastened with gold buttons; his cloak was of crimson velvet, lined with satin, and bordered with gold; his cap, of velvet also, ornamented with a white feather, fastened with a splendid jewel; he wore silk stockings, and Spanish leather shoes; and the hilt of his sword was curiously wrought in gold.

The ladies of the same period, wore velvet hats, with occasionally a veil of golden gauze. In some states, Bavaria for instance, ruffs, something in the style of those worn by Queen Elizabeth, were fashionable. The dresses were made open before, but hung loose from the neck, without being fastened in at the waist, in the fashion of the ancient Saxon costume. This dress was generally of silk, and over it was worn a loose jacket of black velvet, with a stiff upright collar, and tight half sleeves, below which descended the full long sleeves of the under dress, reaching down to the wrist.

The citizens of Cologne, (and most likely the costume was nearly alike in most of the cities,) wore usually an under coat, fastened round the waist with a leather belt, and over it a loose coat with tight sleeves, puffed at the top, a large lawn ruff round the neck, and a black velvet hat with a broad brim. The pantaloons and stockings formed one continuous garment, and half boots, wide at the top, were usually worn with this kind of dress.

The senators of Leipsic are described as dressing entirely in black cloth or velvet, with long black silk

robes trimmed with fur, black velvet hats, and large gold chains. They also wore long beards, but the custom of wearing beards, or of having them shorn, varied in different states, and at different times. Citizens' wives and daughters generally imitated the style of the nobility, the rich wearing short velvet jackets over their silk dresses, and others contenting themselves with cloth and muslin, made in the same fashion.

Among the peasantry then, as now, different costume were adopted in different parts of the empire, most of them very simple and pretty, but I shall speak more of these hereafter. But before I dismiss this subject, I ought to tell you that the Bohemians were ruder in their costume than the other inhabitants of Germany, all their garments being of coarse woollen cloth, lined with fur; they wore high fur caps, wide rough boots, large moustaches, and altogether made a very formidable appearance.

Bohemia seems to have been, in all respects, far behind the rest of the German states in civilisation. It was a warlike nation, and although its towns are described as being in general populous and wealthy, the greater portion of the people might still be termed barbarians.

About three years before the accession of Charles the Fifth, a new race of people appeared in Bohemia, and spread themselves over Hungary and Moravia. These were the gypsies, who are supposed to have been the vagabonds or wandering beggars of Egypt, driven from their own country by Selim, the father of Solyman the Magnificent. Selim conquered the whole of Egypt in 1516, and thus not only greatly increased the power of the Ottoman empire, but also its commerce, as the merchants

of Turkey could then trade direct with India by the Red sea.

The gypsies afterwards wandered into most of the countries of Europe, leading lives not remarkable for honesty, and often obtaining money from foolish people by pretending to a fore-knowledge of events. In Hungary and Transylvania, many of these people followed the trade of blacksmiths and tinkers; in Spain, they kept inns on the roads that were not much frequented, in league with the banditti that infested the country. Such is said to have been the origin of gypsies in Europe, and there are still in Bohemia, Hungary, and Transylvania, many of their descendants remaining, and a sad roguish tribe they are.

When Charles the Fifth retired from public life, his brother Ferdinand became emperor of Germany. He was a very good man, but he lived only eight years after his accession, during which time he was very much harassed by the Turks, who still supported John Sigismund on the throne of Hungary.

From the earliest times, Bohemia had always been considered an elective monarchy, and was governed chiefly by a Diet, which assembled at Prague, composed of barons, knights, and deputies, from all the principal towns. The Bohemians were very fierce, and were often inclined to rebellion; therefore, the emperor was desirous of bringing them more under subjection to his authority, and taking away their right of electing their own king. He, therefore, took advantage of an insurrection among the citizens of Prague, that broke out on his election, to make prisoners of all the principal persons, whom he did not liberate until they had consented to all

the conditions he proposed, among which were that they should surrender all their privileges of every description, and content themselves with such as he should think proper to restore to them; that they should give up all their arms and ammunition, all the tolls of the fairs and markets, which had belonged to the public funds of the cities; and above all, that they should surrender all their lands, and the vassals dwelling on them, to him, and acknowledge his heirs as the future hereditary kings of Bohemia.

The Bohemians were also to pay a tax on beer and malt, which was a great grievance to them, because they grew a considerable quantity of barley for malt, and brewed a great deal of beer, in every part of the country; nevertheless, those who had the direction of the government were obliged to consent to these hard terms to obtain their liberation; and even then, some of them were very cruelly punished for the rebellion, which is a sad stain on the character of an otherwise good sovereign.

It was thus that the Bohemians, till then a free people, became subjected to the House of Austria; and that they might have no opportunity of regaining their lost liberty, the emperor appointed a certain officer in each town called a court judge, whose duty it was to be present at all public meetings, in order to see that the royal authority was maintained, and to prevent any rebellious proceedings. A committee was also established to superintend the press, so that nothing could be printed, nor any foreign publications sold in the country, until they had been approved of by the committee.

It was about this time that the order of Jesuits, which in some measure supplied the place of the old monastic

orders, most of which had been broken up, was established in Austria and Bohemia.

The Jesuits took charge of the public education, and as their chief object was to support the Catholic religion, all their pupils were brought up in that faith; Ferdinand, however, did not interfere with either party; therefore, his reign was not disturbed by those sad disputes respecting religion, that occasioned so much misery, not only in Germany, but in every country throughout Europe. Ferdinand died in 1564, and was succeeded by his son, Maximilian the Second.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF

MAXIMILIAN THE SECOND,
TO THE
THIRTY YEARS WAR.

1564 TO 1648.

THERE is a great pleasure in reading of a good sovereign whose actions prove that he considers himself placed at the head of a numerous body of his fellow men, to watch over their interests, and to use the power entrusted to him for their benefit and protection.

Such a sovereign was Maximilian the Second, whose chief attention seemed to be directed towards the happiness and welfare of his subjects. Mild and benevolent in

disposition, he ruled like a father over his children, and was so beloved by all, that even the Bohemians declared themselves quite happy under his government. He never infringed on the laws and customs of the different states, and he gave equal protection to both religions; so that peace was preserved in each division of the German empire, except in Hungary, which was again invaded by the Turks.

Solyman, the great Sultan, was making vast preparations for subjugating the whole country; but he had now grown old, and the fatigue, added to the anxiety of such an undertaking, brought him to the grave. He was succeeded by his son Selim, who very wisely preferred peace to war; therefore, he concluded a truce with the emperor, and John Sigismund was in consequence obliged to resign the title of king of Hungary, retaining only that of prince of Transylvania.

It was in the reign of Maximilian that the dreadful massacre of the Protestants in Paris was perpetrated on St. Bartholomew's eve; therefore, you will know at once, that at this time Charles the Ninth was reigning in France, Queen Elizabeth in England, and Philip the Second in Spain; and you may conclude that Germany, at that period, differed little from those countries in its style of living, its progress in the arts, its comforts and conveniences of domestic life, and in its general state of society.

In 1571 died John Sigismund, who had been the occasion of so much warfare; and soon afterwards arose a dispute about the crown of Poland, which having become vacant, one party elected Maximilian, while another chose Stephen Battori, who had been chief

minister to John Sigismund, and, after the death of his master, had been made prince of Transylvania.

Stephen was elected, and not long after that event, Maximilian died, much regretted by all his subjects, every one of whom lost in him a good friend. It was the custom of this excellent emperor to receive every day, after dinner, petitions from the people, never heeding their condition in life; so that the poorest mechanic obtained an audience as easily as the richest citizen.

Two good and peaceable emperors had now reigned in succession, and the country was consequently in a more tranquil and happy state than it had been for a long time, when Rodolf the Second succeeded his father as emperor of Germany, and king of Bohemia and Hungary. Rodolf was mild in temper, and possessed great literary attainments; but, unfortunately, he was not so tolerant with regard to religion, and misapplied the talents with which he was naturally gifted, by devoting himself to the unprofitable studies of alchemy and astrology, which made him gloomy, and abstracted his mind from the duties of his station.

The first troubles of this reign arose from the advantage taken by the Protestants of the indulgences granted to them by the late emperors. They had begun to treat the Catholics in a very insulting manner; in every place their numbers were considerable, but more particularly in Vienna, where all the professors of the university, the masters of the smaller schools, and the greater part of the citizens, were of the Protestant religion.

Serious disturbances took place, and the emperor, therefore, soon issued a command that the Protestants

should not have public places of worship, but should perform their devotions in private; but as this order was not attended to, he forbade the exercise of the Protestant religion altogether, which created a terrible confusion in the towns, because many of the magistrates were Protestants, and they would neither resign their offices nor change their faith. The former troubles were now renewed with as much violence as ever, all over the empire; again the princes went to war with each other, and every state presented a scene of misery and bloodshed.

It was about this time, that Pope Gregory the Thirteenth made an alteration in the calendar, by which the date of the month was advanced ten days, so that at the time the change was to take place, the day after the second of the month, was called the thirteenth instead of the third, and so it went on, each day coming ten days earlier than it used to do, and by that means the seasons were more correctly indicated, for there had been a great mistake until this period, in reckoning the duration of the year, which was calculated by Julius Cæsar to contain three hundred and sixty-five days and six hours, being eleven minutes more than it really does contain; so that all these minutes added together from the time of Julius Cæsar amounted to eleven days; consequently, the sun was not in his right place according to the day of the month; and this was the error reformed by Pope Gregory, who brought back the commencement of the year to its proper time.

The Catholics immediately adopted the new style of reckoning, but the Protestants refused to do so, because it was ordered by the pope; therefore, you may imagine what a confusion there must have been in Germany,

when some of the states were keeping their Christmas, Easter, and New Year's day, ten days before others; and not only in different states, but in some of the towns, one portion of the people were celebrating these holidays at one time, and the other at another. Everybody was at a loss to know when the Diets ought to assemble, and when the fairs were to be held; and, in short, with regard to all meetings that it was customary to hold on any fixed day, it now became a matter of dispute which was that day.

In the midst of these disorders, the distresses of the people were augmented by the Turks, who broke into every part of the country where they could find an entrance, destroying all before them. In order to defend his dominions from these terrible invaders, the emperor transferred the country of Croatia, as a fief of the empire, to his uncle Charles, duke of Styria, who erected there the strong fortress of Carlstadt, and divided the lands into feudal estates, which he gave to a number of desperate men of various nations, whose trade was plunder, and who for a long period were the terror of all the neighbouring nations.

They formed a sort of military colony, or rather a colony of feudal banditti, and were known by the several names of Pandours, Croats, and Red Mantles, the latter name being given to them from the large red cloaks they wore. They were armed with a gun, a sabre, and pistols; and wore a short brown coat, girded with a leathern belt, blue pantaloons, half boots, and over their heads the hood of the red mantle.

The settlement of these men in Croatia did not keep away the Turks, who made great conquests both in Hungary and Transylvania, which they effected the more

easily as the inhabitants of those countries did not themselves offer much resistance; for they were so oppressed, both on account of their religion, and also of the taxes levied on them, that they thought they could not be in a worse condition under the dominion of the Turks, than they were under the Austrian government; therefore, the Turks became masters of a great part of the country.

In the meantime, the emperor took very little interest in public affairs, suffering his mind to be entirely engrossed by the speculative studies he was so fond of. His constant companion was the celebrated Danish philosopher and astronomer, Tycho Brahe, who was also supposed to be skilled in astrology, and was one of those who wasted a great part of his life in trying to discover the philosopher's stone, an occupation exactly suited to the taste of Rodolf, who was constantly shut up in his laboratory with this learned visionary, assisting in all his vain experiments.

Rodolf lived in his palace at Prague, and for many years was never seen by his subjects, who held him in the greatest contempt. This was not surprising, since, instead of acting like the sovereign of a great empire, he not unfrequently performed the office of groom in his own stables, and spent a great deal of his time at his turning lathe, making little boxes and other trifles, an innocent occupation for leisure hours had he been a mechanic, but as fate had made him an emperor, the time he thus sacrificed should have been devoted to the duties of his station.

Yet Rodolf was not a bad man, and his reply to one who reproached him with his familiarity with persons of a low station, deserves to be recorded. "Although

elevated above others by our birth," said he, "we ought not to forget that we are allied to them by the defects of human nature, from which none are exempt."

This prince was a great patron of the arts. His court was crowded with engravers, painters, historians, botanists, and scientific men of all descriptions. He introduced some improvements in the art of mining, formed a garden of rare plants at Prague, and in his time, education began to make some progress in Bohemia, in consequence of the establishment of a number of schools in most of the towns.

But all this while, his people were suffering from the cruel ravages of the Turks, and the civil wars that desolated many of the Austrian states, of which he took no heed. He was at length persuaded to resign his crown of Bohemia to his brother Matthias, who was also chosen king of Hungary, and exercised the imperial power in Germany, until the death of Rodolf in 1612, when he was elected emperor.

The reign of Rodolf the Second is remarkable, among other events of importance, for a dispute respecting the succession to the great duchy of Juliers and Cleves, which became vacant by the death of the duke, who left no children. Several of his kinsmen claimed a right to this rich inheritance, and among others, the electors of Brandenburg and Saxony, and the count Palatine of Neuburg, all three Protestant princes.

Rodolf gave his opinion in favour of the duke of Saxony, but as it did not seem likely that the quarrel would be decided very quickly, he took the estates into his own hands until it should be settled who was to become their lord. To revenge this proceeding, the count Palatine of Neuburg, and the elector of Branden-

burg, although rivals themselves, agreed to seize on the duchy between them, and to defend it jointly against the emperor and the duke of Saxony.

In consequence of this usurpation, Rodolf sent his brother Leopold, the archduke of Austria, to expel the two princes, and hold the government of the duchy until the question of right should be decided; on which the usurpers applied for aid and protection to Henry the Fourth of France, who was making preparations to assist them, when he was assassinated in his carriage at Paris.

This event happened two years before the death of Rodolf, yet the two princes did not give up possession of the duchy, but carried on a war with the elector of Saxony and the archduke of Austria; and to strengthen their own alliance, it was agreed between them that the count Palatine should marry the elector of Brandenburg's daughter. A curious circumstance, however, broke off the match, and dissolved the friendship of the two princes, by which means the duchy was released from their usurpation.

One day, after dinner, when both were heated with wine, some dispute arising between them, the elector gave his intended son-in-law a box on the ear, which so enraged him, that he joined the Catholic league that had been formed among the princes of that persuasion against the Protestants; changed his religion, and married another lady.

The war for the succession of Juliers and Cleves went on during the whole time of the religious wars, of which I am about to give an account, and was eventually terminated by a division of the duchy among the claimants.

The emperor Matthias was advancing in years and

declining in health, and having no children, he persuaded the states to elect his cousin Ferdinand, duke of Styria, king of Bohemia and Hungary.

Ferdinand was crowned in both these countries, and after the death of Matthias, which took place soon afterwards, he was elected emperor also, although a strong opposition was raised by the Princes, whose enmity he had already provoked, by his conduct in Hungary and Bohemia. The reign of Ferdinand the Second, and great part of that of Ferdinand the Third, supplies a narrative of that terrible and memorable warfare between the Catholics and Protestants, that desolated Germany for so long a period, and is spoken of as the thirty years' war.

I cannot pass over this remarkable contest, which produced such important results, and in which so many celebrated persons were engaged, without giving you a brief relation of its commencement and progress, with a slight sketch of some of the most noted characters that appeared on the scene of action.

THE THIRTY YEARS WAR.

1613 TO 1648.

THE troubles of this unhappy period had begun before the death of Matthias, for as soon as Ferdinand was crowned king of Bohemia and Hungary, he began to take measures for restoring the Catholic religion in those

countries, by banishing all Protestant preachers and schoolmasters, founding convents, and establishing colleges of Jesuits, instead of the Protestant schools, which he had abolished.

In the midst of these proceedings, he became emperor, by the death of Matthias, and then the Bohemians began to think of resisting his encroachments on their religious liberty. There was a nobleman named Count Thurn, who, like another Zisca, roused his countrymen to rebellion; and encouraged by him, the people built up new Protestant churches, and persisted in the exercise of their religion, in defiance of the royal mandate. The emperor, however, authorised his emissaries to interfere with them; on which Count Thurn, and some other Protestant noblemen, repaired to the council of state at Prague, to lay before it their grievances, or perhaps, with the intent of quarrelling with the members, for a violent altercation arose among them, and three of the Catholic nobles were precipitated from the windows into the moat below; an outrage which the count and his associates attempted to justify, by saying that it was an old custom throughout Bohemia to throw from the windows such as were deemed enemies to the country, in imitation of the ancient Romans, who used to hurl traitors from the Tarpeian rock.

It may be a satisfaction to know that the three gentlemen who were so roughly treated, all contrived to save their lives, although the assailants fired at them from the windows. This was the commencement of the war, for those who had been guilty of this violence, knew they must either submit to the punishment due to such a crime, or defend it by force of arms; so they

chose the latter alternative, and spared no efforts to stir up a general insurrection.

A large army of Protestants was soon raised, and the command taken by Count Thurn and Count Mansfield, the latter being one of the most distinguished generals during this melancholy struggle. The emperor was deposed in Bohemia, and the crown bestowed on Frederick, the Elector Palatine, who was a Protestant prince, and had made himself popular by the affability of his manners; but he had not much talent either as a king, or a military commander, and rather disappointed the expectations of those who had placed him on the throne. Nevertheless, they were resolved to support him against the emperor, who was naturally desirous of regaining his kingdom of Bohemia; but Frederick was assisted by all the Protestant princes of Germany, and by a great many English volunteers; for James the First of England was his father-in-law, and, although, that cautious monarch had endeavoured to persuade him that he had better avoid a war with the emperor, and refuse the crown of Bohemia, which he thought it was not prudent to accept, still he did not prevent English adventurers from going to his aid.

The Hungarians had elected the prince, or vaivode of Transylvania, for their king, so that Frederick was dispossessed of both countries. His armies were commanded by the Catholic princes, and in chief by a count named Tilly, a native of Brussels, and one of the most extraordinary persons of his time. He was a little hard-featured man, with grey hair, large moustaches, and a thin grey beard. He usually rode a very small horse, and appeared at the head of the army in a green satin doublet, with slashed sleeves in the Spanish

fashion; a hat turned up in front, with a long red feather hanging down behind, and a broad belt round his waist, in which he always carried a single pistol.

The manners of this great commander were as singular as his appearance, an amusing instance of which is thus related. One day, a celebrated French general having a desire to see Tilly, contrived to meet him when he was riding at the head of his troops, and on being introduced to him, could not repress a look of surprise, which being observed by the count, he said; " You probably expected to find something extraordinary in my fashion or dress. It is not, I grant, exactly according to the French mode, but it suits my taste, and that is enough for me. However, that you may not go away with a bad opinion of Count Tilly, whom you have honoured with this visit of curiosity, I will inform you that I have won seven battles, and that my little horse here did his duty in them all."

Such was the general who conducted the first few years of the war on the part of the emperor, and few men could have carried it on with more barbarity, for he put no restraint on the cruelty of the soldiers, suffering them to commit the most dreadful atrocities in every town and village they captured.

Frederick did not long retain the crown of Bohemia, for he had not been king two years, before his army was defeated, close to the gates of Prague. This disastrous battle was fought on a Sunday, and while the king was entertaining the English ambassadors in his palace; yet, though the enemy were at his very gates, and his brave soldiers were fighting for him, almost within hearing, he could not be prevailed on to leave the table, and go to the scene of action, although messenger after

messenger was sent, to beg he would come to animate the troops by his presence.

At length, however, he mounted his horse, and rode off to the spot; but the battle was then over, so he returned to his palace, and began to prepare for his departure; for he had not spirit to defend the throne he had usurped, and, in spite of all the entreaties of the citizens, he left Prague in the middle of the night, with his wife and children, and retired to Berlin. The unfortunate people had now no alternative but to open their gates to Count Tilly and his victorious troops, who took possession of the town on the following day.

A melancholy revolution now took place in Bohemia, many of the chief nobles being executed for their adherence to the palatine, their estates confiscated, and their relatives banished. All the most ancient and honorable families of the country were utterly ruined, and the Bohemians, who had till then been distinguished as a brave and warlike nation, lost all their fame, and, in a few years, ceased to be a distinct people, their very language being forgotten, or only used by the peasants in the country villages.

The elector Palatine, no longer king of Bohemia, paid dearly for his short-lived sovereignty, for he was banished from the empire, and his palatinate given to the duke of Bavaria, who was a Catholic prince. Frederick, however, passed through the country in disguise, and joined the army of Count Mansfield, in the hope of recovering his palatinate; but he never succeeded, and, for many years, was an exile and a wanderer.

In the meantime, the war was proceeding with unabated fury, and the miseries of the whole country were daily increasing. Both armies subsisted chiefly by plun-

der, therefore, it is easy to imagine what must have been the distressed state of the agricultural population, whose corn and cattle were taken away to supply the wants of the soldiers. Then the clergy, and superiors of monasteries, whose rents were paid in kind, and who generally had magazines, where they stored up the corn and wine brought by their tenants, were not able to defend these storehouses from the fierce soldiery. Ashes and ruins were seen everywhere, the fields remained uncultivated, and the whole empire was desolated from one end to the other.

Among the officers who distinguished themselves in the imperial army, at the battle of Prague, was Albert, count Wallenstein, a native of that city, and the son of the lord of Wallenstein, a Bohemian nobleman of high rank, but small fortune. He was sent to college to study the law, but having no inclination for so quiet a profession, his father placed him as a page in the family of a German prince, after which, he travelled through several countries, and being addicted to the study of astrology, then so eagerly pursued, he persuaded himself that he was destined to be a very great man; an infatuation that gave rise to his vast ambition, and in the end led to his ruin.

On his return to his own country, he married a very rich widow, and entered the army in the service of the emperor, whose notice he attracted by his valour at the battle of Prague, and in subsequent engagements. As soon as Wallenstein found he was distinguished by his sovereign, he determined, by some extraordinary act, to attain that greatness to which he believed himself pre-destined. He offered, therefore, to raise an army of fifty thousand men, and to equip and pay them at his

own expense, provided he might have the absolute command of them. His offer being readily accepted, he went into Bohemia, Saxony, and other states, where he collected this great army; thousands being glad, in the present wretched state of the country, to enlist in his service, for the sake of pay and plunder. This was a great step to future grandeur, and Wallenstein was now one of the leading generals in this celebrated war.

Ferdinand was, all this while, adopting every method of suppressing the Protestant faith in Austria and Bohemia. Encouraged by the success of his troops, he passed an act, expelling all Protestants from those countries; by which, many thousands of families, of the most respectable classes, were driven into exile.

At last, the Protestant princes applied to Gustavus Adolphus, the renowned king of Sweden, to come to their assistance, and that great hero soon appeared in Germany, and turned the tide in favour of the Protestant party. At first, the imperialists treated his arrival with infinite contempt, calling him the snow king, and saying, he would soon melt away; but they soon found he was a more formidable foe than they had anticipated, and not to be very easily melted, even by the fire of their cannons.

I shall not recount the many battles and sieges that followed the arrival of Gustavus, but shall merely observe, that one of the most dreadful and memorable events of the war, was the capture of the rich and populous city of Magdeburg by Count Tilly, who cruelly suffered all the inhabitants, to the amount of thirty thousand, to be put to the sword; after which, the town was plundered, and then set on fire. I am not fond of dwelling on such scenes as this, nor of describing their

horrors very minutely; but it is well, now and then, to read of, and reflect on the miseries of war, that we may be thankful for the blessings of peace.

Soon after this, Count Tilly was himself defeated in a great battle fought at Leipsic by Gustavus, whose victories after that were very rapid.

Meanwhile, the emperor had been persuaded to dismiss his great general Wallenstein, whose power and wealth had caused him to have many enemies. Wallenstein, had, therefore, retired from the war, and was residing at Prague, where he had built for himself a magnificent palace, and lived in the style of a sovereign.

The description given of the riches and splendour of this celebrated soldier, equals the accounts of Wolsey and Richelieu. His gardens rivalled those of the imperial palace; his retinue, when he travelled, occupied twelve coaches of state, and fifty carriages, and fifty waggons followed with plate and furniture; he had sixty pages in attendance, sons of the first nobles in the empire; and he seldom sat down to table with less than a hundred guests. Yet with all this parade, Count Wallenstein was far from being a happy man, for ambition is never satisfied; and in the midst of gaiety, he was silent, gloomy, and suspicious, subject to violent paroxysms of rage, and constantly brooding over his dismissal from the command.

At length, his services were again requested by Ferdinand, who was alarmed at the astonishing progress of the king of Sweden; and knowing that Wallenstein was the best general in the empire, he was glad to engage him once more in his interest on any terms. The ambitious soldier did not fail to take advantage of this, by refusing to undertake the command, unless he should

be invested with unlimited authority to levy what contributions he pleased, both of money and provisions for the army; and be allowed to have the disposal of all confiscated property, as well as the liberty of conducting the war in whatever provinces he chose, without being subject to any control. All these demands were complied with; and thus Wallenstein became the most powerful man in the empire, not even excepting the emperor himself.

This was in the year 1632, a short time before the battle of Lutzen, in which the great Gustavus lost his life. On the eve of this battle, Wallenstein was heard to say, that a few hours would determine whether he or Gustavus should command the world; but this was a vain boast, for the Swedes were victorious, although their brave monarch fell in the action; and the boaster returned, mortified and disappointed, into Bohemia, where he had a great many of his officers put to death, saying, that his defeat was in consequence of their cowardice.

Ferdinand now began to repent that he had placed so much power in the hands of this man, and being anxious, therefore, to get rid of him, he very readily listened to some of the courtiers, who accused him of a design to usurp the crown of Bohemia. The attempt to arrest so powerful a commander, surrounded as he was by his soldiers and dependents, would have been too hazardous; a plan was, therefore, laid to assassinate him. Some of the officers in his own palace having been gained over, they, under a pretence of giving an entertainment, admitted a number of the conspirators, within the gates, who, having partaken of a feast, broke into Wallenstein's apartment, after he had retired to

rest, and in a few moments, terminated his career for ever.

The emperor's eldest son, who had been made king of Hungary, succeeded Wallenstein in the command of the imperial armies; and the Chancellor Oxenstiern, who governed in Sweden for the infant queen, Christina, took the place of Gustavus.

France, at this period, was ruled entirely by the great Cardinal Richelieu, who, notwithstanding his enmity towards the French Protestants, gave all the assistance in his power to those of Germany; which proved, that he was more influenced by political, than religious, motives, since, in order to lessen the power of the House of Austria, he was ready to support the enemies of the Catholic church.

In 1637, while the war was still at its height, Ferdinand the Second died, and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand the Third, already king of Hungary. I need not follow up the events of the war, which lasted above ten years longer, with all its frightful consequences of ruin and misery. Many new generals had sprung up, equal in renown to those I have already mentioned, and a great number of battles were fought, the names of which it is not of much importance to know.

At last, all parties became anxious for repose, and a treaty of peace was concluded and signed at Munster, called, the Peace of Westphalia, by which, the emperor agreed to restore to the Protestants, all the rights of which they had been deprived by his father, and to add more to them.

In consequence of this treaty, some of the states, cities, and bishoprics, that had, till then, belonged to Germany, were given up to France and Sweden; for

instance, Upper and Lower Alsace, which, hitherto, had been German states, were made French provinces, so that the Rhine became the boundary of the empire. Other alterations were also made in the geographical boundaries of the several countries that had been concerned in the war. But the best and most material consequences resulting from this treaty, were those which placed the Catholics and Protestants on an equality, enabling both parties to have seats in the Diets and councils of state, with the free exercise of their religion, and equal privileges in all respects. All estates that had been declared forfeited during the war, were restored to their former possessors, and Switzerland was acknowledged by all the rest of Europe as a free and independent republic.

The late war had been the entire ruin of the Hanseatic league, which had formerly rendered the towns belonging to it, so wealthy and powerful. Some of them had been destroyed, others plundered, and the inhabitants dispersed, whilst some had been dismembered by party spirit; so that at the end of the war, not more than three or four of the Hanse towns remained united.

The effects of the war were, of course, for some time, very severely felt throughout Germany; but it is astonishing how soon this fine country recovered its prosperity, for in less than twenty years from this time, we read of the riches, the magnificence, and the vast population of the German states, of which I shall presently give an account.

FROM THE
PEACE OF WESTPHALIA,
 TO THE
SIEGE OF VIENNA BY THE TURKS.

1648 TO 1683.

THE tranquillity that had been restored to Germany by the treaty of Westphalia, continued undisturbed till after the death of Ferdinand the Third, who lived about nine years from the time the peace was concluded; the Germans, as we may imagine, being fully occupied during that period, in rebuilding their towns and fortifications.

In 1657, the emperor died, and Louis the Fourteenth of France, who had already obtained a great share of power over the empire, came forward as a candidate for the crown, in opposition to Leopold, the son of the late emperor, who was king of Hungary and Bohemia. Some of the electors were willing to bestow the crown on Louis; but others did not wish to see French sovereigns ruling again in Germany, as in the time of Charlemagne and his successors; therefore, after a dispute of several months, they determined in favour of Leopold the First.

The reign of Leopold was a very long one, and

distinguished by many memorable events. It was in his time, that Vienna was saved from the Turks, by the great hero, John Sobieski; that the revolution took place in England, when the Stuarts were exiled, and the prince of Orange was placed on the throne; that the war for the Spanish succession was begun; that Prussia was erected into a kingdom; that Louis the Fourteenth, by revoking the edict of Nantes, was undesignedly the cause of improving the arts and manufactures of all the nations with which he was at enmity; and that Charles the Twelfth of Sweden, and Peter the Great of Russia, by their ambition and hostilities, created so much disturbance throughout all Europe.

In all the transactions to which I have alluded, Louis the Fourteenth was one of the principal actors, for he was ambitious enough to aim at gaining the sovereignty over all other princes and states, and, therefore, he interfered in whatever was going forward in every country of Europe. It was he who instigated the Turks to invade Germany; it was he who supported James the Second after he was dethroned in England, and who assisted him in his attempt to recover his kingdom; it was he who brought about the war for the succession of Spain, and who fomented the differences between the two rivals, Charles and Peter.

It was not long after Leopold had been elected emperor of Germany, that the French invaded the palatinate, under the celebrated Marshal Turenne, whose object was, at that time, to subject the Netherlands to the king of France; therefore, he was very desirous of making himself master of some of the strong cities of the Rhine. The whole palatinate was laid waste, and the inhabitants were treated with shocking barbarity by

the French troops, who gained possession of Strasburg, and some other towns. But we will leave the French for awhile, to speak of the Turks, and the grand victory gained over them by John Sobieski, king of Poland.

The emperor had offended the Hungarians, by interfering with some of their privileges, and the consequence was, that a violent insurrection broke out, headed by a chief named Tckeli, who invited the Turks to the aid of his countrymen. The Turks had been in possession of Buda, the capital of Hungary, for a very long period, but they had, for some time, ceased to molest Germany. When, however, they found the Hungarians ready to join them against the emperor, they did not neglect so favourable an opportunity, and, with the help of the insurgents, soon became masters of some of the principal places in Hungary.

In the meantime, the sultan, Mohammed the Fourth, was preparing a formidable army to send into Germany, and Leopold was then very glad to make an alliance with the king of Poland, John Sobieski, the greatest military commander of his time.

The sultan gave the command of his vast army to his grand vizier, Mustapha, who passed through Hungary into Germany, and marched direct towards Vienna. As he approached the capital, the terror of the citizens was beyond all description. Leopold himself, with his family, and the whole court, retired to Passau, and the greater part of the inhabitants, finding the emperor had departed, left the city as fast as possible, carrying with them as much of their property as they could conveniently move; so that the roads were thronged with fugitives and carriages of all descriptions, laden with goods. The town was strongly garrisoned, and about

fifty thousand of the citizens, capable of bearing arms, had staid behind to defend it.

The Turkish army, having destroyed the suburbs, pitched their tents close to the walls, and began the siege, which lasted several weeks; the people within expecting, every hour, that the city would be taken by storm, and that they should be put to the sword, for they had given up all hopes of receiving any assistance. At last, when they had almost yielded themselves up to despair, their spirits were suddenly revived by a signal from a neighbouring height, which indicated that friends were at hand.

Mustapha, who had not calculated on the town being relieved, had delayed his intended assault, because he thought it could be made at any moment, and that he was quite sure of success, when, one day, as he was sitting in his tent, taking coffee with his two sons, a messenger came in haste to say, that the Poles were fighting their way to the camp; and a moment afterwards, he heard a cry of Sobieski! at which name, he rushed out of the tent in alarm, and mounting his horse, gave orders for an instant attack on the town. But it was too late; for the very name of Sobieski had caused such a panic among the Turks, that they fled in all directions, leaving behind them their tents, baggage, cannons, and even the grand standard of the Turkish empire, with this inscription—"There is but one God, and Mohammed is his prophet."

The tent of the grand vizier was long preserved in the palace at Munich, and shown to all travellers as an interesting trophy. It was of painted calico, with silken cords, tassels, and ornaments; and with it were preserved several splendid dresses taken from the prisoners.

and the harness of their horses, adorned with gold, silver, and precious stones.

After the defeat of the Turks, the brave king of Poland entered Vienna in triumph, where he was received with every demonstration of gratitude by the citizens, who crowded round to touch his hand, his cloak, or even his horse. Those who, a few weeks ago, had quitted the town in fear and sorrow, now returned joyfully to their homes, breathing prayers for their gallant deliverer.

The reception of the emperor, on his return to his capital, was very different from that which greeted Sobieski; for the people felt that he had deserted them in their distress, therefore, they expressed no satisfaction when he came back to them; and it was, probably, the mortification he felt on this account, that occasioned his cold and haughty behaviour towards the king of Poland, whose services he scarcely deigned to acknowledge.

The two illustrious princes had but one short and formal interview, in which Leopold said just as much to the saviour of his empire as ceremony required; and the hero of Poland returned to his own country, not impressed, as we may suppose, with a very high idea of the generosity of the German emperor.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

LET us here pause to make a few observations about Germany and the Germans, at the close of the seventeenth century. The wars with the French and with the Turks, must undoubtedly have been a great injury to the country; nevertheless, its prosperity was quickly restored, and in four or five years after the siege of Vienna, the people were as gay and happy as ever. Vienna was noted for gaiety and good living. The houses were handsome, and built of stone; the citizens rich, and their dwellings and tables well furnished. The rooms were heated with stoves, made so portable that every lady had her stove carried to church in cold weather, for the winters in Austria are so severe, that people of both sexes envelope themselves in furs during that ungenial season.

The ladies of Vienna had a very elegant pastime in the winter, which was, racing in sledges on the small frozen streams branching from the Danube, generally at night, by torch light. The sledges were of various shapes, some like scallop shells, others like tigers, all handsomely decorated, and each drawn by one horse, adorned with plumes, ribbons, and little bells, that made music as it flew along the course. Servants on horseback carried the torches, and a gentleman sat behind each lady, to guide the horse that drew her sledge. If the ladies were fond of sledge racing,

the gentlemen were no less so of boar hunting, which was a favourite pursuit all over Germany, and no dish was held in more estimation than the flesh of the wild boar, particularly the head, which was also the grand dish of the olden time in England, where it was sometimes carried to table at Christmas, with a band of music playing before it.

The Emperor Leopold often went out to hunt the wild boar, and the boar's head, no doubt, formed one of the dishes at his table on Christmas day, when it was customary for him to dine in public. Christmas was as much a season of festivity in Germany, as in other countries, and the merry customs of twelfth night were observed among all ranks of people, even to the very highest; for the emperor and empress themselves joined in the sports, and gave up their dignity for the time to the king and queen of the evening, the emperor laying their cloth, and the empress serving them with wine; so you see, some of the good old customs of the Germans differed very little from those of our own country.

The established religion of Vienna was the Catholic, and as no Protestant churches were allowed there, the Protestants were obliged to go to Presburg, which was forty miles distant; therefore, a coach went every day from Vienna to Presburg, for the convenience of those who had no place of worship nearer. There were public conveyances now established between most of the principal towns, under the superintendance of the government, which derived a considerable revenue from the profits.

The Jews of Vienna did not live in the town, but had a district assigned to them on the opposite side of the Danube, being permitted to go into the city only in the day time, and to trade in one particular street. This was

the case in most of the large towns of Germany. At Nuremberg, for instance, they had a village to themselves, outside the walls of that place, and were obliged to pay a toll every time they entered the city, which they were compelled also to leave before night.

At Augsburg, they had to pay a florin, equal to about three shillings of our money, every time they went into the town. The students of the university of Vienna, who were not a very orderly set of young men, used to have frequent quarrels with the Jews, and now and then a fight was the consequence. In one of these affrays some lives were lost, which caused the Jews to be forbidden from coming into the city at all, and shortly afterwards they were banished from Austria altogether. The country round Vienna was extremely fertile, and generally held in very small farms, yielding such abundance, that the labouring people were able to live in plenty. No peasantry in the world were better off than the peasantry of Austria, a fact that could not be doubted by those who had an opportunity of seeing their contented looks, and the attention they paid to their personal appearance. Dancing was their chief holiday amusement, in which they displayed much grace and animation; and the young men were also in the habit of fencing for prizes. There was no theatre in Vienna at that time, but there were a great many mountebanks, jugglers, and such people, who exhibited their feats for money.

The Germans, in most parts of the country, still retained some of the habits of their barbarian ancestors, for in their best apartments the most esteemed ornaments were drinking cups of all sorts and sizes, ranged in the nicest order; and as soon as a visitor appeared,

no time was lost in setting before him such viands as the house afforded, with large jacks of wine, for wine was so plentiful, that if a traveller asked at an inn for a cup of wine, they brought him a great can full, for which he had not to pay more than a penny. All the country, on both sides of the Rhine, was covered with vineyards, interspersed with small cities and villages, whose inhabitants made very free use of the juice of the grape.

All this country belonged to the Elector Palatine, who was an absolute prince, and was obeyed as a sovereign by all his own people, who did not consider themselves the subjects of the emperor, but of the prince Palatine. The care of the vineyards, and wine making, was the principal occupation of the peasantry in the Palatinate, and, when they were not disturbed by the wars, they were a very happy people. But Louis the Fourteenth was a sad enemy to this part of Germany, which was twice laid waste with fire and sword by his soldiers, who turned out all the inhabitants of the towns and villages into the wasted fields, where they could find neither food nor shelter. However, at the time I am now speaking of, the emperor had, for three or four years, been at peace with the French king, and the inhabitants of the Palatinate were again living very happily.

In some of the small towns, which were scarcely more than villages, the wealthiest of the peasants acted as magistrates, and not being free from the general propensity of their countrymen, they were in the habit of meeting at inns to talk over their official duties, all with their cans of wine before them, and dressed in gay coloured vests, with large ruffs of black taffeta, and high crowned hats, covered with green and yellow ribbons. The female costume of the Palatinate was no less extra-

ordinary; the little caps of the women were made of coloured stuff, bordered with a different colour; and their petticoats, which were very short, were fastened round the waist with a leather girdle, and set out to an immense width, by means of a large roll put under the girdle.

As I have been speaking of the fondness of the Germans for wine, I cannot do less than illustrate the subject by the description of an enormous wine tun, in the cellar of the elector's palace at Heidelberg. This tun, which was twenty-one feet high, and large round in proportion, was ornamented on the outside with the arms of the elector, and many appropriate devices, and those who wished to see the top of this extraordinary vessel had to mount fifty steps, to a gallery built along the front of it. The tun of Heidelberg was celebrated all over Europe, and might very justly be styled a great curiosity.

The Germans had left off the satin doublets and crimson velvet mantles, which they used to wear in former times. The most usual dress for gentlemen, at this period, was a black suit, with a short cloak, a large ruff, and a peruke. When the French customs began to be adopted in the towns of Germany, the marked differences that used to distinguish the higher classes of the different states, gradually disappeared, and all national peculiarities were confined to country people, who seldom adopt the customs of other nations, which are therefore, found but little changed among them from one generation to another.

In the country of the Tyrol, the men were all famous for their skill in hunting, being trained up from childhood to that pursuit. In every village was a square, where the

boys were accustomed to practise shooting and wrestling. So fond were they of wrestling, that they would travel many miles to the different fairs, to exhibit their skill in this art. But the Tyrolean was chiefly distinguished as a hunter, and would roam about for days together among his native mountains in search of the chamois and other wild animals. On such occasions he wore a large green hat to keep off the sun, and carried with him his gun, which was slung at his back, a stick pointed with iron, to assist him in climbing the dangerous heights, and a bag of provisions over his shoulder.

The mountains of the Tyrol produced a yellowish kind of marble, which was used at Augsburg to floor the rooms, before carpets were in use.

The people of Hungary, at this period, were in general farmers and graziers. They reared great numbers of cattle and sheep, and corn was grown in such abundance, that as much bread might be bought there for two-pence, as could be had in England for a shilling. The Hungarians did not lay up their corn in barns, but in caves under ground, in which they and their families used to conceal themselves on any sudden invasion of the Turks. They were not entirely free from feudal subjection, the lord of the manor being entitled to a share of the produce of the land; but there were no serfs in Hungary, as there were in Bohemia, where slavery still existed to a great extent.

The dress of the Hungarians was extremely convenient for horse exercises, in which they were skilled, being a close coat, very short in the skirt, fastened round the waist with a belt of leather, a short mantle, tight pantaloons, with boots, and a fur cap. The coat was generally made of yellow, green, or light blue cloth, for the people

of this country were so fond of fine colours, that even their priests wore purple robes.

The common shepherds, and herdsmen were usually habited in a long sheepskin cloak, with the wool inside, beneath which they wore a shirt and trowsers of hempen cloth. The young women, in some parts of Hungary, wore a dark boddice with a blue petticoat, and red boots, and their chief employments were spinning and basket making. There were no schools in Hungary, therefore, the gentry were obliged to send their sons to Vienna or Prague, to be educated, and the greater part of them went into the army.

The least civilised part of the Austrian dominions was Transylvania, where the people were mere barbarians, dwelling in huts, and subsisting chiefly by feeding their flocks and herds. They were very revengeful, and extremely indolent, spending a great part of their time in eating, drinking, and sleeping.

The prince or governor of Transylvania was called the Vaivode, and resided at Hermanstadt, the capital of the country, which was inhabited by Saxons, and was a very good town; but all the other towns were little better than poor villages, and were inhabited chiefly by the Heyduks, a fierce and revengeful race of people, who were soldiers in war and cattle-feeders in peace.

The useful arts were altogether unknown among the people of Transylvania, except those of spinning and weaving, which were the common occupations of the women of barbarous nations, in the earliest times, and were, therefore, no proofs of civilisation; and although Transylvania was one of the most fertile countries in Europe, yielding abundance of corn and fruits, wherever it was cultivated, yet the natives were too indolent to

improve the soil, and this fine tract of country was wild and neglected.

The towns of Germany were in general handsome, well built, populous, and wealthy, and were governed by their own laws and magistrates; most of them were surrounded by fortifications, a very necessary protection, in those days, as they were constantly liable to be besieged. The Germans, as I have before noticed, were skilful in all mechanical arts, and their toys, clocks, and watches, continued to be celebrated all over the world.

FROM THE SIEGE OF VIENNA,

TO THE END OF THE

WAR OF SUCCESSION.

1688 TO 1711.

It was very soon after the defeat of the Turks, at Vienna, that Louis the Fourteenth, by his persecution of the Protestants of France, and above all by his revocation of the edict of Nantes, drove great numbers of French artisans into other countries, many of whom settled in Prussia and various parts of Germany.

I shall here take occasion to speak of Prussia, which about this period was first erected into a kingdom, before which, it had only been a duchy, and had made but little figure among the German states. In the early days of

the German empire, the present kingdom of Prussia was inhabited by the Pagan tribes of the north, until it was conquered from them by the Teutonic knights, who kept possession of it for more than three hundred years, when, in the beginning of the sixteenth century, Albert, the Margrave of Brandenburg, who was a grand master of the Teutonic order, changed his religion, as many of the knights had already done, and thus their numbers had much decreased.

Albert having become a protestant, agreed with his uncle, Sigismund the First, of Poland, to try to dispossess the knights of all that part of the country which they still held, for some part of it had already been taken from them by the Poles; and if he succeeded in gaining the rest, he was to hold it as a fief of the king of Poland, with the title of duke. The scheme was successful, and Albert of Brandenburg took possession of his share, which was called Ducal Prussia, and the king of Poland retained the other part, which was called Royal Prussia. From this time, the electors of Brandenburg were dukes also of Prussia, till the year 1701, when the reigning duke, Frederick, having rendered great services to the emperor Leopold, in the war of succession, was in return made king of Prussia, which then first became a kingdom.

Frederick, the first king of Prussia, was the son of Frederick William, called the great elector, from his goodness and unwearied exertions to improve his country and the condition of his people. He was the first prince who held Prussia as an independent state, and not as a fief of the kings of Poland; and when Louis the Fourteenth took away from the Protestants the act by which their rights had been protected, and forced them, by his

cruelties, to seek refuge in other countries, the great elector encouraged numbers of them to settle in his dominions, and was so kind to them, that in a very short time they were established comfortably in various parts of Brandenburg and Prussia, where they were enabled to maintain themselves and their families by their various trades.

When this good prince died, his son Frederick was also a kind friend to the French refugees, and after he was made king, he gave them lands in Prussia free of rent and taxes, built churches for their use, and settled incomes on their clergy. By these munificent acts, he not only benefited them, but himself also, by introducing new arts and manufactures into his electoral dominions of Brandenburg, and his kingdom of Prussia. Several of the German princes, imitating his example, encouraged the French Protestants to settle in their states; and by the aid of these industrious people, linen manufactories were established in Hamburg in 1692, for making fine table linen and dowlas, which the English were glad to purchase of the Hamburg merchants, instead of getting supplies of these goods, as they had formerly done, from France. Thus the French monarch, by his folly and cruelty, injured the trade and resources of his own country, and increased that of other nations.

In time, the French manufacturers and artisans in Prussia, grew so rich, that they were able to build several new streets at Berlin, and became persons of consideration in the city. It happened, a few years before the death of the emperor Leopold, that the king of Spain, Charles the Second, died, leaving a will, by which prince Philip, the grandson of Louis the Fourteenth, was named his successor; but the authenticity of this will was dis-

puted by the archduke of Austria, Charles, the second son of the emperor; and their dispute occasioned a long war, in which all Europe was engaged, and which was called the war of the Spanish succession.

The rival princes had an equal claim, by their relationship to the deceased monarch; but the Spaniards preferred Philip, who was crowned, and took possession of the throne. All the enemies of Louis then took up the cause of the archduke, and amongst them William, king of England; and when he died, Queen Anne continued the war.

As soon as Philip was crowned in Spain, the emperor Leopold laid claim to the duchy of Milan and other possessions in Italy, which belonged to the crown of Spain, and sent an army into that country, under the command of a celebrated General, called prince Eugene, who was a grandson of the duke of Savoy, and strongly attached to the House of Austria; so that the war of succession began in Italy, and was afterwards carried on in Germany and Spain also.

It was about this time that Peter the Great, of Russia, was engaged in building his new town of St. Petersburg, and among his other schemes for aggrandizing his empire, was that of obtaining possession of some ports on the Baltic sea, for the purpose of forwarding his commercial enterprises. These ports belonged to Sweden, and could not be obtained without a war with that country; therefore, the Czar Peter persuaded the king of Poland, Frederick Augustus, who had succeeded the great Sobieski, to join him in going to war with Charles the Twelfth of Sweden, then quite a youth, but endowed with the talent and energy of an experienced soldier.

The wars of Charles the Twelfth and Peter the Great, were more connected with the history of Poland, than with that of any other country, because Charles deposed Frederick Augustus, and placed another prince on the throne, which gave Peter a new ground of quarrel, as he was bound to protect the rights of his friend and ally. Peter and Charles were too much occupied with their own disputes to trouble themselves about the Spanish succession; but you may imagine that no part of Europe could have been in a very tranquil state, while both these wars were going on.

One of the most distinguished generals in the war of succession, was the English duke of Marlborough, who fought and won the celebrated battle of Blenheim, often mentioned in English history. This battle took place in the early part of the reign of our Queen Anne, and a very short time before the death of the emperor Leopold the First, who died in the year 1705.

You must understand that the English sovereigns were chiefly incited to take a prominent part in this war, because Louis the Fourteenth had done his utmost to restore James the Second to the throne of England, in opposition to the wishes of the people, who had themselves chosen William, prince of Orange, to be their king; and I will take this opportunity of explaining how the crown of England, after the death of Queen Anne, came to be placed on the head of a German prince.

I have elsewhere remarked, that our present queen is a descendant of the famous duke of Saxony, Henry the Lion. The son of Henry the Lion was duke of Brunswick, whose dominions descended in a direct line to his heirs, until 1546, when Duke Ernest, at his death, divided them into two parts, one called Brunswick

Lunenburg Wolfenbuttle; the other, Brunswick Lunenburg Zell, and these two duchies were governed by separate dukes.

Now it happened, during the war of succession, that Ernest Augustus, duke of Brunswick Lunenburg Zell, rendered great assistance to the emperor, who, in return, raised him to the dignity of an elector. He was called the elector of Hanover, because the city of Hanover was the capital of his dominions. This prince married the Princess Sophia, daughter of the unfortunate Elector Palatine, who was made king of Bohemia at the time of the thirty years' war, and was afterwards banished from the empire.

You will, perhaps, remember, that the wife of the Elector Palatine was a daughter of King James the First of England; therefore, the Princess Sophia, who married Ernest Augustus, the first elector of Hanover, was granddaughter of James the First, and her son, George, after the death of Queen Anne, became king of Great Britain, because he was the next Protestant heir to the throne; and a law had been made in the time of William the Third, to exclude all Catholic princes from the succession.

The Emperor Leopold being dead, the imperial crown was given to his eldest son, Joseph, during whose short reign of six years, the wars continued without intermission. Prince Eugene, the duke of Marlborough, and other great generals, were fighting in Italy, Germany, and Flanders; while the Archduke Charles chose Spain for his scene of action; and the emperor of Russia and the king of Sweden, whose quarrels had nothing to do with the question respecting the crown of Spain, carried on their wars chiefly in Poland and Russia.

While Europe was in this miserable state, no people suffered more than the inhabitants of the Palatinate, who were robbed of all they possessed, and then barbarously driven forth from their villages by the French soldiers, into the open fields, where many perished from want. Some thousands of these destitute people went to England, and tents were erected for their accommodation on Blackheath, till something could be done to put them in a way of maintaining themselves.

A number of charitable persons subscribed to furnish them with food and clothing, and the English government granted a large sum of money towards the expense of sending away a great many to the English colonies in America, where they had land given to them, and became settlers, mostly in the state of Pennsylvania. Others were sent to Ireland, where they were settled in small farms, and a great many were hired as servants in private families in England. No doubt these poor exiles were very grateful for the kindness they received, but they could never be so happy as they had been in their own native homes.

At length, the war, after having lasted ten years, was terminated by the sudden death of the Emperor Joseph, by which, the Archduke Charles, his brother, became emperor of Germany; and then the English government and other powers, that had supported his cause in Spain, were rather inclined to permit Philip to reign there in peace, because they did not desire to see one prince in possession both of Germany and Spain, as so large an extent of dominion would render his power disproportionate to that of the other sovereigns of Europe; and it is generally the wish of all governments to preserve, what they call, the balance of power; which

means, that no one state should become so powerful as to endanger the safety of the rest. In order to preserve this balance of power, sovereigns often support each other against any state which shews a disposition towards the acquirement of an undue extent of territory and influence.

In the year 1711, the archduke was crowned emperor, by the title of Charles the Sixth, and, a short time afterwards, a general peace was concluded, on condition that the king of Spain should give up the Netherlands, and his Italian states, to the emperor; that he should give up Gibraltar to the English, and make several other concessions, which it is not necessary to enumerate here.

CHARLES THE SIXTH.

1711 TO 1740.

DURING the late war, the Hungarians had been in a state of insurrection, and had fought with the French against the emperor, being anxious to free themselves from his government, and to elect a king for themselves; but as soon as the archduke, Charles, became emperor of Germany, he granted them such ample privileges, particularly with regard to religion, that he not only restored tranquillity to the country, but converted the people from dangerous enemies, into staunch friends and obedient subjects.

About three years after the accession of Charles the Sixth, died Queen Anne, who was succeeded by the German prince, George the First, duke of Brunswick, and elector of Hanover, whose title to the English crown I have already sufficiently explained. This event naturally united the interests of England and Germany more closely; and Louis the Fourteenth dying in the following year, the emperor was relieved from his greatest enemy.

Charles had two daughters, but no sons; and as he knew by experience the miseries that are caused by a disputed succession, he was very anxious to settle that point during his life, by making a law, called the Pragmatic Sanction, which was in fact a will, bequeathing the imperial crown, with all his extensive dominions, to his eldest daughter, the archduchess Maria Theresa.

You are aware, no doubt, that all the sons of the Emperors of Germany were styled archdukes, and all the daughters archduchesses. The empire at this time consisted of Germany, Hungary, Bohemia, Transylvania, Austria, Silesia, the Netherlands, Sicily and Naples, Milan, and several others duchies and dependent states; therefore, it was a very large inheritance; and as most of the European princes had claims to various parts of it, provided the emperor should die without a male heir, it was not easy to induce them to agree to the Pragmatic Sanction; and unless they did so, Charles knew very well that, as soon as he was dead, they would go to war with each other for his dominions, of which his daughter would then be deprived.

At length he succeeded in gaining the consent of the sovereigns of Spain, Russia, Prussia, England, and of

Holland also; but the new king of France, Louis the Fifteenth, protested against the succession of Maria Theresa, and many of the German states opposed the Pragmatic Sanction, on various political and religious grounds.

In the meantime, the war was going on between Peter the Great and Charles the Twelfth; and the celebrated battle of Pultawa was fought in Russia, when the king of Sweden was defeated and took refuge in Turkey, where he remained some time. During his absence, the king Stanislaus Lezzinski, whom he had placed on the throne of Poland, was compelled to restore the crown to the deposed monarch, Frederick Augustus, who was supported by the emperor of Russia; while Stanislaus fled into Alsace with his daughter, who soon afterwards married Louis the Fifteenth, and became queen of France.

Louis was still at variance with the emperor of Germany, and on the death of the king of Poland, in 1733, he reinstated his father-in-law, Stanislaus, on the throne. Peter the Great and Charles the Twelfth both died before this event took place; but the election of Stanislaus was opposed by the emperor of Germany, and several battles were fought in consequence, between the French and the Austrians, in which the latter experienced several defeats and great losses, and the emperor at last made peace with France on rather disadvantageous terms, being obliged to give up much of his Italian territory.

This war had been carried on in Italy, and although the French had been successful, Stanislaus had been compelled to renounce the crown of Poland, and to retire once more into France, as the Russians had taken

part against him, and had been victorious in Poland, while his Austrian foes were defeated in Italy.

The archduchess Maria Theresa was now about eighteen years of age, and being a princess of great spirit and extraordinary talent, interested herself very actively in the affairs of the government, which she expected, some day, to be called upon to direct. This princess, who was both amiable and beautiful, had formed an attachment to Francis, the young duke of Lorraine, who was no less attached to her, and as the union was approved of by the emperor, it had every prospect of happiness.

The happiness of the duke, however, was somewhat clouded by the terms of peace proposed to the emperor by the king of France, who demanded that the whole territory of Lorraine should be ceded to him, in return for which he would give his consent to the Pragmatic Sanction, and interfere no more with the affairs of Poland. When the duke of Lorraine understood that it would be necessary for him to part with his patrimonial inheritance, he was greatly distressed, and at first refused to comply, although he was to be compensated for the loss, by being put in possession of the grand duchy of Tuscany, on the death of its duke, who was very old. But Tuscany was not his native home, nor the home of his forefathers, and he persisted in his refusal, till the emperor's chief minister, count Bartenstein, who had great influence in all state affairs, said to him,—“ My lord, you must either give up the duchy or the archduchess, so take your choice.”

The youthful lover hesitated no longer, and the fine country of Lorraine was united to France, and bestowed on the exiled monarch of Poland, Stanislaus Lezzinski, who was duke of Lorraine till his death. The marriage

of Francis and Maria Theresa took place in 1736; and the former, by the death of the grand duke of Tuscany, whose race was extinct, became lord of that duchy.

This marriage united the two branches of the ancient house of Austria, which had been separated ever since the seventh century, at which period it is recorded that a certain duke, Ethico, divided his dominions between two sons, one of whom was the founder of the House of Hapsburg, the other of that of Lorraine, which had been continued in two distinct lines till now, when the sole heir of the one, married the sole heiress of the other, and thus again they merged into one line, after having been disunited for more than ten centuries.

Soon after the marriage of the illustrious pair, a war broke out between the Austrians and their old enemies the Turks, which proved very unfortunate for Germany, as no advantage whatever was gained by it, and the people were very heavily taxed to defray the expenses. The emperor was thought extremely imprudent for persisting in carrying it on; and so it turned out, for the Turks gained possession of the strongly-fortified town of Belgrade, which the Austrians considered their best protection against these formidable enemies.

The emperor was very much grieved and displeased when he heard that his generals had been induced to make peace with the Turks, by the surrender of this important place, for he thought they might still have defended it; and as this was the prevalent opinion, the unfortunate generals were arrested, and sent as prisoners to different castles, where they were kept in confinement till the death of Charles, which happened in the course of the following year.

Besides the town of Belgrade, the two fine provinces

of Wallachia and Servia had also been ceded to the Turks, which occasioned great discontent among the Jesuits, who formed a numerous body in Austria, and had possessed many fine estates in those two provinces. They had several colleges, too, within the walls of Belgrade, which were immediately dissolved by the Turks, who were the professed enemies of all Christian establishments.

This was the last event of importance in the reign of Charles the Sixth, who died in 1740, leaving the country in a weak and impoverished state, in consequence of the late useless and expensive war. Yet he was a prince of an excellent disposition, and anxious to promote the welfare of his people, by giving encouragement to arts and manufactures of every kind. The manufacture of porcelain was brought to great perfection in Saxony, in the time of Charles the sixth, the Dresden china being celebrated all over the world.

Charles formed a great many new roads in various parts of his dominions, and repaired the old Roman road through Wallachia, which, perhaps, he would not have done if he had been aware that the Turks were about to dispossess him of that province. He was a patron of literature, arts, and sciences; revived the academy of painting, and sculpture; built the public library; and was so fond of music, that he composed an opera, and when it was performed in the theatre of the palace, he took a part himself in the orchestra. His band of musicians was said to be the best in Europe, which is very probable, for the Germans were then, as they are still, the finest musicians in the world.

Having mentioned the celebrated manufacture of Dresden china, it may not be uninteresting to give some

account of its establishment, and the singular mode in which it was carried on. A few years before the accession of Charles the Sixth, baron Botgar, a gentleman possessing a considerable property in mines, and who had devoted some attention to the study of mineral productions, happened to discover, in the course of his experiments, a peculiar method of forming a very fine kind of porcelain.

The first specimens of this beautiful ware, were of a red colour, and capable of receiving a high polish; but after a time, the baron found out the art of making a white composition, and of painting and gilding it in a very elegant manner. This porcelain, the most beautiful that had yet been made in Europe, was soon so famed, that it was sent to every part of the world; and particularly to England, where it became such a fashion to possess Dresden china, that persons of distinction vied with each other in decorating their rooms with vases, cups, images, and all kinds of ornaments made of this costly ware, which was to be seen exhibited in all the best shops in London.

In the time of Maria Theresa, the manufactory was carried on in the castle of Meissen, and belonged to the king of Poland, who was also elector of Saxony, and he derived a large revenue from it. The art of making the china was kept a profound secret and to prevent its discovery, the workmen were never suffered to go outside the walls of the castle, nor were any strangers admitted to view the works.

The king of Poland had a palace on the banks of the Elbe, in which he possessed a vast collection of Dresden china, most of it exceedingly curious, consisting of quadrupeds and birds, as large as life, flowers, immense

vases, and a variety of other things, remarkable as curiosities, but of no utility. This passion for collecting porcelain, was carried to so great an extent by the king of Poland, that Frederick the Great, of Prussia, used to call him the king of China.

MARIA THERESA.

1740 TO 1780.

MARIA THERESA was only twenty-four years of age, when, by the death of her father, she succeeded to the vast dominions of the House of Austria. All the princes of Europe had been brought by the unwearyed efforts of the late emperor, to guarantee the Pragmatic Sanction, that is, they had promised not to interfere with the rights of his daughter; but no sooner was he placed in the tomb, than several of them laid claim to various parts of her inheritance.

Charles Albert, the elector of Bavaria, asserted that the kingdom of Bohemia belonged of right to him, because he was next male heir to Ferdinand the First; Augustus, the elector of Saxony and king of Poland, demanded the whole of Austria, because his wife was the eldest daughter of the emperor Joseph; Philip the Fifth of Spain, Louis the Fifteenth of France, and Frederick, king of Prussia, all came forward with their several pretensions; and if the young archduchess had

not found some very good friends, she would soon have been deprived of all her possessions.

One of the most powerful of these friends, was George the Second, king of England, who, during the war that existed, warmly defended her cause, and even fought himself at the head of his Hanoverian troops.

The country, at this period, was in a very distressed state, on account of the scarcity and dearness of provisions, a calamity that was owing to the late war with the Turks. Hence, serious disturbances arose among the lower orders of people at Vienna. In addition to this cause of discontent, a severe frost had cut off the vintage, and thrown great numbers of the peasantry, in the wine districts, out of employment; and these poor people, being unable to procure food for themselves and their families, assembled in large bands, and went about destroying the game on the noblemen's estates.

In the midst of these distresses, and when the Prussians were on the point of invading her dominions, Maria Theresa repaired to Presburg, where she was joyfully received, and crowned queen of Hungary; by which title, she was afterwards usually called. The Hungarians were enthusiastic in her cause, for she pleased them by taking the oath that used to be taken by their ancient kings. By this oath, she pledged herself, that if any of the privileges of her subjects were invaded, she would not dispute their right of taking up arms in their own defence. Then, according to another ancient custom, at her coronation, she rode on horseback up the royal mount, a hill near Presburg, and waved a drawn sword towards the four cardinal points, as a defiance to all the world.

These ceremonies being performed, she summoned

the Diet to the castle, and entering the hall with the crown on her head, and a sword by her side, she ascended the throne with a majestic air, and addressed the deputies from the different towns in Latin, which was commonly spoken all over Hungary; and at the conclusion of her animated speech, all present drew their swords half out of the scabbard, exclaiming, "We will die for our queen! long live Maria Theresa!"

The first care of the new queen of Hungary was to secure for her husband a share in the government, under the title of co-regent; and so much was she beloved by the Hungarians, that the states readily assembled to confirm his authority. On that occasion, presenting herself before them, with her infant in her arms, she addressed them in the following memorable words: "Abandoned by my friends, persecuted by my enemies, attacked by my nearest relation, I have no other resource than in your fidelity, in your courage, and my own constancy. I commit to your care the son of your king, who has no other safety than your protection." At the spectacle of the beauty and distress of the young queen, the Hungarians, a warlike people, drew their swords, and exclaimed, as before, "We will die for our Queen Maria Theresa."

In the wars that followed, the troops of Maria Theresa were chiefly composed of Hungarians. They did not form a regular army, but consisted of detached bands of fierce warriors, some called Croats, others Pandours, and others Selavonians, according to the several parts of the country from which they came; and they struck terror into the hearts of the French and German soldiers by their ferocious appearance, and their mode of fighting, which resembled the furious onsets of wild Indians, rather than the regular movements of disciplined troops.



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While the queen was in Hungary, Frederick of Prussia had made himself master of all Silesia, and the French, Bavarians, and Saxons, had taken possession of Upper Austria, and a great part of Bohemia. The elector of Bavaria, who had besieged and taken the city of Prague, was declared king of Bohemia in December 1741; and two months afterwards, he was elected emperor of Germany at Frankfort, and crowned by the title of Charles the Seventh. But this prince, although he was invested with the title, never enjoyed the power of an emperor, and, in consequence of his ambition, he lost his Bavarian dominions; for, on the very day that he received the imperial crown, the Hungarians, joined by the natives of the Tyrol, forced their way into Bavaria, and took possession of Munich, the principal city; and thus the newly-made emperor had really parted with a substance for a shadow. He lived only four years from this time, and, in dying, expressed his regret that he had ever been tempted to aspire to a crown, which had brought with it nothing but troubles and losses.

Meanwhile, the Austrians, commanded by Francis of Lorraine, the queen's husband, had retaken Prague, and Maria Theresa was crowned queen of Bohemia. This event was celebrated with splendid festivities, among which were chariot races, in imitation of those among the ancient Greeks, with this difference, that at Prague they were performed by ladies only, whereas, at Greece, the charioteers were warriors.

While the Austrians were fighting against the queen's enemies in Bohemia, the Hanoverians were supporting her cause in Germany, where a great victory was gained over the French at the battle of Dettingen, by King

George the Second; this being the last battle in which a king of England has been personally engaged.

The death of the emperor Charles the Seventh, in 1745, changed the aspect of affairs in Germany. Francis of Lorraine became a candidate for the imperial crown, and the young elector of Bavaria, son of Charles the Seventh, agreed to give him his vote, on condition of being put in possession of his electorate of Bavaria, to which he was accordingly restored; and soon afterwards, Francis of Lorraine, who, you should remember, was grand duke of Tuscany, was elected emperor of Germany; on which occasion, the empress dined in public with the army, at Heidelberg, and gave a piece of money to each soldier.

It was just at this time, that the great rebellion broke out in Scotland, in favour of prince Charles Stuart, who had availed himself of the absence of the king, in Germany, to make an attempt to recover the crown of Great Britain. The duke of Cumberland, who had been fighting the battles of the queen of Hungary, was immediately sent home, to take the command of the troops preparing to march against the rebels; and the king soon followed him. The war in Germany continued four years longer, when a treaty of peace was signed at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1749, by which the empress-queen was secured in all her dominions, except Silesia, which was given up to the king of Prussia.

There was now an interval of peace, during which, Maria Theresa employed herself in remedying the distresses occasioned by the war; a task for which her amiable and benevolent disposition was well calculated. To the high spirit which had maintained her on the throne, she united all the talents for government that

distinguished our Queen Elizabeth, but was far superior to her in feminine graces, being affectionate in her family, kind to her domestics, pious, charitable, and affable in her manners to every one.

Francis the First, although he bore the title of emperor, took very little share in the government, which was entirely conducted by the empress-queen. So little ambition had he, that when Maria Theresa held a levee, he would generally mix among the throng who attended it, instead of taking his place as head of the empire. On one of these occasions, while the queen was thus engaged, Francis, who, as usual, was quietly looking on, happened to sit down in an obscure corner, near two ladies, who recognising him as the emperor, instantly arose. "Pray sit down," said he, "for I shall stay here till the court is gone, to amuse myself in watching the crowd." "The court cannot be gone," replied one of the ladies, "so long as your imperial majesty is pleased to remain." "Oh, you mistake," said he, "I am here only as a simple individual, my wife and children are the court."

He was a good and amiable prince, and many pleasing instances of his humanity are recorded. Once, in the winter season, the suburbs of Vienna were overflowed by an inundation of the river, and the water rose to such a height, that a considerable number of persons had no means of saving themselves, but by climbing to the tops of the houses, where they were in danger of perishing with cold and hunger; for the rapidity of the stream, and the masses of ice floating on it, made it almost impossible for any boats to go to their assistance. In this perilous situation, they remained for three days, when the emperor, unable to bear the sight of their

sufferings, declared he would himself make an attempt to rescue them, and leaping into a boat, he, with some difficulty, rowed it towards the poor creatures, whose transports at this prospect of relief, were beyond description. The example of their prince induced several others to exert themselves in so good a cause, and many boats were seen approaching the sufferers, who were all brought away in safety.

Francis was fond of study, and devoted much of his time to chemical pursuits; for the delusion with regard to the philosopher's stone had not been wholly abandoned; and he, among others, entertained hopes of finding out this wonderful secret.

Germany had been at peace about seven years, when the French, who were at war with the English in America, invaded the German dominions of the king of England, which gave rise to what is usually termed the Seven Years' war.

At the same time, Maria Theresa entered into a league with the empress of Russia, for the purpose of trying to recover Silesia, which had been ceded at the last peace to Frederick the Great. Thus a new war commenced, in which the king of Prussia gained great renown; but after it had been carried on for seven years, the French and English made up their differences; and at the same time, the empress and king of Prussia also concluded a treaty of peace, by which all conquests were restored on both sides, leaving the two sovereigns in the same position which they had occupied at the beginning of the war.

About this period, the emperor Francis died suddenly, and his eldest son, the archduke Joseph, was made emperor; but during his mother's life he was merely a

nominal sovereign, without either power or territory. His next brother Leopold became grand duke of Tuscany; and the third, Ferdinand, was appointed governor of the Austrian dominions in Lombardy; and soon afterwards, by his marriage, became duke of Modena.

I mention these circumstances to show you how the Austrians came to possess so much influence in Italy. Having spoken of prince Ferdinand, I cannot refrain from relating a little anecdote illustrative of his amiable disposition. Before his departure for Italy, several grand entertainments were given in honour of his new dignity, and among other rejoicings, it was proposed there should be an illumination at the palace of Schoenbrunn; but when the prince heard of this intention, he said to the empress, "My dear mother, there has already been quite enough money expended on my account. Surely the cost of this illumination would be better employed in relieving those who are suffering from the high price of bread."

The empress immediately gave up the project, and presented her son, instead, with a sum of money to dispose of as he pleased, on which he went himself to the abodes of many respectable families, who were reduced by the pressure of the times to great distress.

I need not tell you what use he made of this money, but when he returned to the palace, after a day spent in acts of charity, he tenderly embraced the empress, saying—"This, dear mother, had been a treat indeed."

The general scarcity that prevailed at this time, was owing to the seven years' war, which had ruined the agriculture of several fine provinces, and, in many parts of the country, had been a serious injury to trade.

At the time of which I am now speaking, Hamburg

was the greatest of all the commercial cities of Germany. Many English merchants resided there, and as it was of great importance to other countries that its trading intercourse should not be stopped, this town was allowed, during the war, to be considered as neutral, that is, it was permitted to keep at peace with all parties. Hamburg had as many as three hundred ships constantly employed in carrying merchandise to and from England, Holland, and all the German states to which access could be gained by means of the Elbe river. Before the linen trade was so much extended, and improved in Great Britain, large quantities of linen goods were sent to this country by the Hamburg merchants; and in time of war, Hamburg was the chief magazine for the inland consumption of Germany, as continual supplies were received there from other nations.

The houses in this city were generally high, and the streets so narrow that two carriages could scarcely pass each other; but the streets were formed before carriages were in use, or else they would no doubt have been made wider.

The inhabitants were principally merchants, and amongst them were a number of Englishmen, who had a large factory there. The city was divided into five parishes, each of which had a handsome protestant church, and was governed by four burgomasters, twenty-four senators, and some other magistrates.—There were but few mechanics, and the manufactures were inconsiderable, the only articles made there being gold and silver lace, stockings, and silk. Most of the citizens had small gardens on the banks of the Elbe, to which they were accustomed to retire when the business of the day was over; but they

did not lay out their gardens according to our ideas of taste, rather preferring neatness to natural beauty; and cutting off every little twig that presumed to shoot out beyond the rest.

These gardens were small and formal, and nothing was suffered to grow in them to any height; nevertheless they pleased the good people of Hamburg, who were well contented to walk in them in the evening, the gentlemen smoking their pipes at their ease.

The city was surrounded by a wall, and the gates were always closed at an early hour, after which no one was allowed to pass either in or out. The ladies of Hamburg were very reserved in their manners, and seldom walked abroad without a black silk veil, which concealed their faces. The senators of Hamburg wore a dress resembling the ancient Spanish costume, being entirely black, with a cloak, a velvet hat, and a sword. They were chosen for life, ten of them being lawyers, the rest merchants, but the latter were always expected to give up business and to keep a coach, as soon as they were raised to the dignity of senators; and as those who were chosen were generally rich men, they could afford to do so, particularly as there were emoluments attached to the senatorial office.

During the seven years war which began, as I before stated, between the English and French in America, both parties were in the habit of making prizes of each other's trading vessels, and sending the goods with which they were laden, to be sold at Hamburg; and that town was, in consequence, stocked with all sorts of merchandize from America and the West Indies, as well as from England and France, which caused the citizens of

Hamburg to prosper, while those of other towns, harassed by warfare, could not carry on their trade to any advantage.

At length the war was happily terminated, and the peaceful years that succeeded were employed by the empress-queen in promoting the welfare of her subjects, by the encouragement of arts and sciences, and the establishment of schools in all the villages. She gave prizes for all useful inventions and improvements in manufactures; and bestowed rewards on those peasants who produced the finest crops.

It was this wise and good princess who altered the game laws, which had always been very injurious to the farmers, who were forbidden by them to kill any of those destructive animals that the nobles were in the habit of hunting, such as the wild boars, and wolves, which did a great deal of damage among the corn, sometimes destroying whole crops. Yet the princes of the country were so selfish, that, for the sake of their own amusement, they would suffer many an honest and industrious family to be totally ruined, rather than let them shoot the ferocious creatures that made such havoc in their fields. The empress, however, gave them the right of killing any wild animal they found doing any mischief to their property, and in consequence of this permission, many a fine crop of wheat was saved.

The Austrians were at this time a very happy people. They had recovered from the calamities of the war, and being now in the full enjoyment of the blessings of peace, and a good government, they lived in ease and prosperity. Poverty was rare, even among the lower classes; and want was almost unknown.

Some of the peasantry were still in feudal subjection,

living on the estates of their lords; but the artisans were mostly free, and formed a numerous class of people, who were very contented and industrious.

The female peasantry of Austria are always prettily dressed, generally in stuff petticoats of their own manufacture, with tight bodices, laced with ribbon, and red or yellow neck-kerchiefs. The stockings and apron are usually blue, and in some parts of the country, the girls wear a large grey hat, ornamented with ribbon. The countrymen also wear their broad hats adorned with ribbons; but there is a great variety of costume among the lower orders, in different parts of the Austrian dominions.

Until the reign of Maria Theresa, the churches and convents in Germany had possessed the right of affording sanctuary to criminals; but this wise princess saw the bad effect of such a custom; therefore, she ordained that in future those who had broken the laws of the country, should find no protection within the walls of any sacred edifice. She abolished the use of torture, and suppressed the inquisition in her Italian dominions. It was in her reign too, that the Jesuits, who were much disliked by the Protestant princes, were suppressed in Germany; but the good fathers were not treated there with the same cruelty they experienced in Spain, when the order was abolished in that country; on the contrary, the empress did every thing in her power to soften their lot, by providing them with the means of living in comfort, while the Jesuits of Spain were not only harshly treated, but many of them were suffered to perish for want of the absolute necessities of life.

The Germans now, for many years, enjoyed all the blessings of peace and plenty, but the government

thought it necessary to provide means of security against so powerful and dangerous a neighbour as the king of Prussia; therefore, the military conscription was instituted; every man of a fitting age being liable to be pressed into the service, in case of war. This arbitrary measure was a considerable drawback to the happiness of the lower orders of people, who must have been in constant dread of being summoned to serve as soldiers; and so great was this fear among the inhabitants of the Tyrol, who were not subjected to the conscription laws, that they would not go to the fairs at Inspruck and other towns, to contend for the prizes in wrestling matches, as they used to do, for fear of being taken for soldiers. The military laws were in force throughout all the Austrian dominions, except the Netherlands, Hungary, the Tyrol, and Milan, in Italy.

I am now going to speak of an act of shameful injustice towards the Poles, who have been for a long time, and still are, a most injured people. Poland was not, at this time, so powerful a state as it formerly had been. The empress Catherine of Russia had acquired a great share of authority over that unfortunate country, which was governed by an elective king, whose powers were very limited, he being scarcely more than the president of a republic. The great body of the people were in a state of feudal vassalage; but the nobles were very numerous, since all who possessed land, or were descendants of persons who had held lands formerly, and were not engaged in trade, were accounted noblemen, however poor they might be. The most opulent among them, like the feudal barons of old, maintained a number of followers, consisting chiefly of the poor nobles, who, disdaining trade, had no means of support, but by

attaching themselves to the richer ones, attending upon them, feeding at their tables, and being ready to fight for them on all occasions.

The king, Augustus the Third, was just dead; and as every nobleman had an equal right to become a candidate for the crown, a great confusion was caused by the number of competitors on this occasion. Among them, was Count Stanislaus Poniatowski, whose pretensions were supported by the empress of Russia; while Maria Theresa favoured those of the son of the deceased monarch. The king of Prussia, however, declared in favour of Stanislaus, who was elected and crowned, in spite of all opposition. But Stanislaus was of too independent a temper to please those who had placed him on the throne; and as he would not tamely submit to be deposed, Poland became a scene of tumult and bloodshed.

It was then, when the country was weakened by its own troubles, that the sovereigns of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, formed a conspiracy to take possession of it by force, and divide it among themselves; and as the king was unable to resist their united armies, he was compelled to give up the throne, and sign the act of partition; by which, Austria unjustly gained a fertile and extensive territory in the south of Poland.

Maria Theresa died at the age of sixty-four, deeply regretted by her subjects, amongst whom she had been universally beloved and respected.

FROM THE
 DEATH OF MARIA THERESA,
 TO THE ACCESSION OF
 FRANCIS THE SECOND,
 FROM 1780 TO 1790.

THE emperor Joseph was one of those who act from the best of motives, but who defeat their own good intentions, by want of judgment in carrying them into effect. Many were the schemes formed by this good monarch for the benefit of the people, but he ruined them all by his impatience to see them accomplished, which prevented him from allowing sufficient time for the purpose.

One of his plans, and certainly it was a meritorious one, was to free the peasantry from the vassalage in which they were still held in many parts of the Austrian dominions. Maria Theresa had done much to ameliorate the condition of the lower orders, particularly in Hungary and Bohemia, where the feudal system yet existed in all the tyranny of ancient times. Most of the estates in the Austrian territories were held by feudal tenure, except in the Netherlands, the Tyrol, and the lands belonging to the free cities. The peasants, in those parts, were quite free; but those who held their farms of

a feudal lord, had to give him a tenth part of the produce, to furnish him with a man and two horses for ninety days in the year, and were subjected to many other heavy exactions. In Bohemia, the vassal tenants paid no tithes, but they were obliged to give one hundred and sixty days' labour, which was a grieved burthen, and kept them very poor, as nearly half the year was consumed in working for a master who paid them no wages.

The emperor's plan was to abolish all these taxes at once, by which the feudal peasantry would be made as free as those who rented farms of the citizens; but it was not just to deprive the landed proprietors suddenly of a large source of income, without making them some compensation, which he neglected to do; therefore, although he enforced the reform in his own hereditary territories, it was not admitted either in Hungary or Bohemia; nor did the freed peasants reap all the benefit they had hoped for from their emancipation in Austria; for this reason, the lord of the soil used to pay a certain land tax to the crown, which he collected from his tenants; and if they were not able to pay it, he was responsible for the deficiency. But under the new regulation, this tax was to be paid by the peasants themselves, direct to the emperor's collectors; and when he happened to be in great want of money, it was so much increased, and collected with so much rigour, that it was as burthensome as the feudal dues.

The next reform, and that which was more successfully executed, was, the equalization of the rights of those who professed different religious principles. He was himself a Catholic, but was liberal enough to think that all men were entitled to liberty of conscience;

therefore, he gave permission to all sects of Christians to build churches, and follow that form of worship which they considered best; and he also granted to the Jews the privilege of carrying on trade and manufactures in all the free towns, of taking farms, and of sending their sons to be educated at the schools and universities; so that he did much towards eradicating the illiberal prejudices so generally felt with regard to persons of the Jewish persuasion.

The conduct of the emperor, in matters of religion, might, perhaps, create a doubt, as to whether he was, in reality, a Catholic himself; for he took great pains to abolish many of the ceremonies of the Romish church, and suppressed a great number of monasteries, and all the nunneries, except those of one order, that of the Ursulines, which were reserved for the purposes of female education; and even among those, the number was considerably reduced. The suppressed convents were converted into hospitals, barracks, or universities; but all this was done in so hasty a manner, that no arrangements were made for the maintainence of the monks and nuns, many of whom, were, in consequence, reduced to the utmost distress. Of two thousand convents that existed in the Austrian dominions at the death of Maria Theresa, there remained but seven hundred, the inmates of which did not exceed three thousand persons; whereas, in the time of that empress, they amounted to thirty-six thousand.

The emperor devoted the revenues of the convent lands to very good purposes, such as making new roads and canals in various parts of the country, founding academies for the study of medicine, surgery, botany, and natural philosophy, and granting sums for the

improvement of manufactures by machinery; but it was to be regretted that he did not devote some share of the spoil to save from want the unhappy brethren and sisterhood, whom he had so inconsiderately left to their fate; forgetting that persons who had spent the greater part of their lives in seclusion, were unfitted for active life, and unacquainted with any art by which they might provide for themselves.

Among his numerous endeavours for the advancement of commerce, Joseph the Second made an arrangement with the Turkish sultan, by which it was agreed, that the corn and wine of Hungary should be conveyed by the Danube through the Turkish dominions, to the Black Sea, and thence into the Mediterranean, by the straits of the Dardanelles. This was a very great advantage to the Hungarians, whose country was productive, but who had hitherto made but little profit by its produce, because they had no means of carrying it to any great distance, as their ships had not been previously at liberty to sail down the Danube farther than the confines of the Austrian territories. The removal of this prohibition opened to them a vast trade, and they sent vessels to Genoa and Marseilles, laden with corn and wine; but scarcely had they begun to feel the benefits arising from an extended commerce, when Joseph was persuaded by the empress of Russia to join in a war against the Turks; and thus all the good he had effected, was undone by his own imprudence. The war did not last long, but occasioned much discontent among the Hungarians, which was increased by the attempts of the emperor to infringe on many of their privileges, which, at his coronation, he had promised to protect.

Not long after the termination of the Turkish war,

the emperor endeavoured to introduce into the Netherlands, the reforms he had made in his German dominions; but the attempt caused a general insurrection, which ended in the separation of those countries from the empire; for the people of the Netherlands being determined not to submit to any innovations, rose up in arms to defend their liberties.

The Austrian Netherlands consisted of nine provinces, each forming a separate sovereignty, and having its own peculiar constitution. These provinces were governed by their own princes, but all owned the chief of the House of Austria as their head. No country, for its size, had a richer or more numerous population, and as the emperor derived a very considerable revenue from this valuable possession, he acted very unwisely in running the risk of losing it, by interfering with any of its established laws and customs. This, however, he did to a great extent, by making alterations in the mode of taxation, by effecting changes in the system of public education, and by abridging the privileges of the clergy, several of whom were arrested for not acting in conformity with the imperial mandate.

These, and other arbitrary acts, occasioned the revolt of which I have just spoken, the states entering into a confederacy for mutual support; and although the emperor, when he found he was in danger of losing these provinces, offered to withdraw all the measures that had given dissatisfaction, he did not make these concessions till it was too late; and the Netherlands, supported by France and Prussia, formed themselves into an independent republic.

This revolution took place in 1789, and the emperor, who was in very ill health, was so much affected by it,

that he died soon afterwards. It was in his reign, that manufactories of cotton, woollen cloth, and glass, were established in Germany.

This emperor reigned only ten years, and is said to have written this epitaph for himself, "Here lies Joseph, who was unfortunate in all his undertakings."

He was succeeded by his brother, Leopold the Second. Leopold was grand duke of Tuscany, where he had ruled twenty-five years, and was better known by the title of duke of Tuscany, than by that of emperor of Germany, where his reign was of very short continuance. Leopold succeeded his brother Joseph at a time when the House of Austria was surrounded by difficulties and dangers. The Bohemians and Austrians were discontented at the taxes imposed on them by the late emperor; the Hungarians were ready to break out into open rebellion; and the most powerful of the nobles began to assert their ancient privilege of electing their own kings, instead of allowing themselves to be governed by the Austrian emperors. The French revolution had just commenced, which was another cause of trouble; for Leopold was brother to the unfortunate queen of France, Marie Antoinette, who was the youngest daughter of Maria Theresa; and the French revolutionists hated the Austrians, because they thought the queen had influenced her husband, Louis the Sixteenth, in that arbitrary system of government, which caused so much misery to the French nation.

Leopold was a wiser man than his brother, and, by his judicious conduct towards the Hungarians, he restored tranquillity, and was crowned king of the country. If his reign had been longer, he might, perhaps, have succeeded in freeing the peasants from vassalage, and

giving them the right of holding landed property, which he was very desirous of doing; but as the magnates or nobles were very naturally opposed to such a revolution, he did not think it prudent to irritate them by urging the point, but made up his mind that he would endeavour to accomplish the desired object by slow degrees.

As soon as the emperor had succeeded in pacifying the Hungarians, he turned his attention towards the recovery of the Netherlands, in which he also succeeded, partly by negociation, and partly by hostile means; but the Netherlands were not destined long to remain attached to the German empire, as you will soon find.

In the meantime, the French revolution was going on with increasing violence, and the emperor, who was anxious for the safety of his sister, as well as desirous of maintaining the authority of crowned heads, which it was the avowed purpose of the revolutionists to overthrow, held an interview with the king of Prussia, to consult on the best means of supporting the cause of Louis the Sixteenth; and they agreed that if the other sovereigns of Europe would join them, they would march their armies against the republicans of France; but neither the king of England, nor the king of Spain, seemed inclined to interfere, and they had not taken any decided measures, when Leopold died, having only enjoyed the imperial dignity for the brief space of two years. His wife, the empress, Maria Louisa, a daughter of Charles the Third of Spain, never recovered from the shock occasioned by his death, and in a few months followed him to the grave.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF

FRANCIS THE SECOND,
TO THE
PEACE OF TILSIT.

1792 TO 1807.

IT was not long before the new emperor Francis was engaged in a war with the French revolutionists, on account of their having abolished all feudal laws and customs in the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, as they had done in France.

Now these countries, although they had been ceded to France, were inhabited by a German population, and governed by German princes; therefore, it was contended that the French had no right to introduce their new laws into them. The disputes that arose on this subject caused the national assembly to declare war against the emperor, and the French armies invaded the Netherlands, defeated the Austrians and Prussians, and gained possession of those countries.

French armies then poured into Germany, and in a short time the war was raging in every part of the Austrian dominions. The Palatinate, which had so often suffered from French invasions, was again a scene of

horror and bloodshed, and the enemy were soon in possession of several imperial cities, as also of the electorates of Treves and Cologne. The chief command of the Austrian army was entrusted to the archduke Charles, brother of the emperor; and among the German princes engaged in the war, were the prince of Saxe Coburg, the duke of Wirtemburg, and the duke of Brunswick.

In the meantime, a large army had been sent into Italy, under the command of Bonaparte, who conquered all the Austrian territories in that country; and then, flushed with his success, led his victorious troops across the Alps into the duchies of Carinthia, Styria, and Carniola, and the mountainous district of the Tyrol, wasting all these provinces with fire and sword. The sufferings of the poor peasantry were beyond description, for the French soldiery were cruel and rapacious, sparing neither age nor infancy, nor paying the least regard to female helplessness.

The brave inhabitants of the Tyrol rose in a body, and in conjunction with a party of the imperial troops, succeeded in driving the enemy from their country; and soon afterwards Bonaparte proposed terms of peace to the emperor, who consented to sign a treaty, by which he gained a temporary cessation of hostilities at the sacrifice of a large portion of his dominions. This agreement was called the treaty of Campo Formio. The terms were dictated by Bonaparte, and acceded to by Francis, who was to give up the Netherlands, and all his Italian states, to the French, and to consider the Rhine as the boundary between France and the empire, an alteration that considerably diminished the extent of the latter, and increased that of the former.

As a compensation for these great losses, Francis was to receive the Venetian states, a poor exchange for the large and valuable territories he had been forced to part with.

About this period died the king of Prussia, who, for some time, had taken no part in the war, for he had made peace with France, and had chosen to remain neutral ever since the Netherlands had been taken by the French, five years before. The peace of Campo Formio was not of long duration, for during Bonaparte's absence in Egypt, the Austrians re-possessed themselves of a great part of the Milanese and other territories that the emperor had reluctantly surrendered by the treaty of Campo Formio.

When Bonaparte returned from his Egyptian campaign, and found the Austrians were again in Italy, he prepared without delay to dislodge them, and for that purpose made his famous expedition across the Alps, and won the celebrated battle of Marengo, in which the Austrian troops sustained great loss, and were obliged to retreat into Bavaria.

A new treaty of peace was then made with the emperor Francis, called the treaty of Luneville, by which he was obliged to give up still more of his German territories, as well as all the states that had been recovered in Italy during Bonaparte's absence. The people were overjoyed at the return of peace, but the conduct of Napoleon showed that it was not likely to last, for his object was not to maintain peace, but to make himself absolute master of Europe.

Not long after the treaty of Luneville, he quarrelled with the English government, and declared war against England, on which British troops were sent into Holland,

and a powerful army was collected also on the frontiers of Hanover, to defend the Hanoverian dominions of the king of Great Britain. It was very dishonourable of the French government to invade the northern states of Germany, as it had been agreed that they should be held neutral; therefore, the English and the Hanoverians were very indignant when, in violation of this engagement, the French, in 1803, gained possession of the whole of Hanover, and the French general took up his residence in the electoral palace which George the Third had just repaired and beautified, at a vast expense, for the accommodation of his son, the duke of Cambridge.

The occupation of Hanover by the French, was a sad misfortune to the merchants of the Hanse towns, particularly of Hamburg; and was also a serious injury to the trade of Great Britain; for the conquerors had the entire command of the Elbe and the Weser, and could, therefore, stop any vessels they pleased from sailing up and down these rivers, or levy contributions on them.

Large sums of money were extorted in this way from the traders of Hamburg and Bremen, who were reduced to extreme distress by this and other taxes levied on them; and to add to their misfortunes, the English government, exasperated at the interruption of the British commerce with Hamburg, sent out a squadron of ships to blockade the mouths of the two rivers, so that no vessels whatever could pass, and many of the Hamburg and Bremen merchants were in consequence totally ruined. So great was the distress, that in Hamburg, above thirty respectable citizens committed suicide in the short space of one week, a melancholy proof of the state of despair to which they were reduced.

The seizure of Hanover was not the only instance in

which the French violated their promises of non-interfering with the neutral states, and a fresh outrage on the liberties of Germany soon proved how little faith was to be placed in treaties. An attempt had been made in Paris to assassinate Bonaparte, and it was suspected that the duke D'Enghien, a young prince of the House of Bourbon, was a party concerned in the plot.

This elegant and accomplished young man was residing at the castle of Ettenheim, in the grand duchy of Baden, when he was arrested by a troop of French cavalry sent for the purpose, and conveyed to the castle of Vincennes, about four miles distant from Paris, where he was condemned to death the same night, by a military commission, and shot early on the ensuing morning, in one of the ditches of the castle; although it has generally been admitted that the charge against him was unfounded.

All the sovereigns of Europe were indignant at this unjustifiable act of arbitrary power on the part of the first consul, that being the title Bonaparte had assumed. The emperor of Russia, in particular, made spirited efforts to form a coalition among the princes of the empire, for the purpose of resisting any farther encroachments on their independence; but, unfortunately, one of the most powerful of these princes, Maximilian, elector of Bavaria, was in alliance with France, which rather intimidated the princes of the minor states, who were fearful of involving themselves in an unequal contest.

Two great events immediately followed the execution of the duke D'Enghien, one of which was that Bonaparte caused himself to be made emperor of France; and the other, that Francis the Second renounced the title of emperor of Germany, and assumed that of

hereditary emperor of Austria. By this latter change, which took place in the year 1804, the German empire, that had existed from the time of Charlemagne, was at an end.

Preparations were now making on both sides for a renewal of the war. Francis had recruited his armies in Austria, and by the latter part of 1805 he had collected an immense force, which he divided into three parts, sending one division to besiege Munich, the capital of Bavaria; another to try to expel the French from Italy; and the third to occupy the country of the Tyrol. Bonaparte, whose plans were always quickly formed, and as quickly executed, soon appeared in Germany at the head of a fine army, and accompanied by all his best generals, amongst whom was Bernadotte, the present king of Sweden, and the famous Marshal Soult.

The arms of Napoleon were attended with the usual success, and he marched onward, conquering as he went, till he reached Vienna, which he entered in a triumphant manner, without meeting with the least opposition; for the emperor, with his family, had retired to Brunn, in Moravia, and most of the nobles and chief citizens had fled into Hungary.

In the meantime, another body of French troops had entered the Tyrol, which was given up to them without a battle, as the archduke John, who had command of the Austrians in that district, thought it more prudent to retreat than to expose his men to an almost certain defeat. At this critical period, a fresh army of Russians, led by the emperor Alexander in person, came to the assistance of the dispirited Austrians; Francis then rallied all his forces, and gave battle to the French on the plains of Austerlitz, when Bonaparte was again victorious; and

in consequence of the result of that memorable engagement, the whole of Germany became subjected to his control. It is a remarkable circumstance, that the only sovereigns of Europe who bore the title of emperor, fought in person at the battle of Austerlitz, namely, Francis of Austria, Alexander of Russia, and Napoleon of France.

Some very important alterations now took place in Germany, for Francis was obliged to make peace on such terms as the conqueror thought fit to propose, and you may readily imagine they were not very easy ones. Some provinces were to be given up to Italy, others to Bavaria and Wirtemburg, both of which the French emperor erected into kingdoms, so that there has been, from that time, a king of Bavaria, and a king of Wirtemburg. These princes had been previously electors, but as the empire of Austria was declared hereditary, instead of elective, the title of elector, in time, became extinct.

The new king of Wirtemburg was uncle, by marriage, to the present queen of England, having married the eldest daughter of George the Third, and he is described as having been a proud, tyrannical man, both in public and private life. Among the states that were now given up by the emperor of Austria to the two new kingdoms, were the Tyrol, the rich and populous town of Augsburg, and all the Austrian possessions in Suabia, which left the emperor very little more of his once extensive empire than his hereditary dominions of Austria, with the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary.

It was about the time that Francis adopted the title of emperor of Austria, that a number of the German princes, whose territories lay on each side of the Rhine, began to unite together to form a body separate from the other

princes of the empire, and acknowledged the emperor of France as their head and protector. This association was called the Confederation of the Rhine; all those who entered into it were, in fact, so many vassal princes, of whom Bonaparte was the sovereign lord. They were obliged to furnish him with soldiers, to pay him subsidies, and were in every respect dependent on him, so that their situation was by no means enviable; but most of them, no doubt, were induced to join this league, for the sake of saving their dominions from the ravages of the French troops.

A proof of the despotism of Napoleon occurred after the battle of Austerlitz, when, in order to secure the fidelity of the new king of Bavaria, he demanded the hand of his daughter for Eugene Beauharnois, the son of the empress Josephine, by a former husband; and although the young lady was on the point of marriage with the elegant and accomplished prince of Baden, to whom she was very much attached, she was compelled to give up the lover of her choice, and bestow her hand on one who to her was a stranger.

Fortunately, Eugene was a very amiable prince, and I believe, proved an excellent husband; but Bonaparte did not take that into consideration when he forced the princess to become the prince's bride.

All this while, the king of Prussia had carefully avoided taking any part in the war; but now, seeing how much power Bonaparte had assumed in Germany, he began to have fears for the safety of his own kingdom, and entered into an alliance with the emperor of Russia, for the purpose of attempting to expel the French from the German territories. The enterprise was unsuccessful. The Prussians and their allies were defeated with great

loss, at the battle of Jena, and Bonaparte immediately took possession of Berlin and Potsdam, and sent the sword of Frederick the Great, which was among the spoils taken on the occasion, to Paris, as a trophy of victory. In the battle of Jena, was mortally wounded Ferdinand, duke of Brunswick, the father of the princess of Wales, wife of George the Fourth.

Soon after this engagement, the great commercial city of Lubec was taken by storm, and the Prussian general Blucher was forced to capitulate, after having lost nearly the whole of his army. The electorate of Saxony was now formed into a kingdom, by Bonaparte, who bestowed the title of king on the elector, although he had been his enemy in this short war with Prussia. But Bonaparte wanted to separate the interests of Saxony and Prussia; and he thought he could not do so better than by erecting the former into a distinct kingdom, which he did, on condition that the new king should join the Confederation of the Rhine.

About the same time, another kingdom arose in Germany, namely, that of Westphalia, of which Jerome Bonaparte, was made king; and soon afterwards a peace was concluded, called the peace of Tilsit, between the emperor of Russia and the emperor of France, when a large portion of the Prussian dominions were taken from the king of Prussia, and annexed to the new kingdoms of Saxony and Westphalia.

INSURRECTION IN THE TYROL,
 AND OTHER EVENTS, FROM THE
 PEACE OF TILSIT TO THE FALL OF
 BONAPARTE.

1807 TO 1814.

IT is now time to speak of the sad occurrences that happened in the Tyrol, from the time when that unfortunate country was made a part of the kingdom of Bavaria. The new king, Maximilian Joseph, was a great tyrant; he was as cruel to the Tyrolese as the emperor Albert had been, in former times, to the people of Switzerland.

The Tyrolese had, until this period, been a free, and on the whole, a happy, people, living in a simple manner, chiefly by hunting, and feeding their flocks and herds among their native mountains. They were formerly governed by counts, but had long been subject to the emperors of Germany, who allowed them to retain all their ancient laws and privileges, which were maintained by a Diet, held at Innspruck. But the rights which had been respected by the emperors, were violently broken in upon by the new sovereign, who abolished the Diet, suppressed all the monasteries, and imposed such heavy

taxes on the people, that they had not the means of subsistence left.

Those manifold oppressions occasioned a revolt, and the Tyrolese attempted to expel the Bavarians, as the Swiss expelled the Austrians in the days of William Tell; nor did they want a leader of equal bravery and patriotism, although his efforts were not crowned with similar success.

The champion of the Tyrol, was a peasant named Hofer, who, with the assistance of a priest, and another rustic hero, called Speckbacker, roused the inhabitants to arms, and the French and Bavarians were defeated in several actions. The cruelties perpetrated, during this insurrection, on the unhappy people of the towns, and villages, mostly women, children, and men too old to fight, are beyond all description; till at length the French and their allies being driven from the country, Hofer assumed the government, and took up his abode at the castle of the ancient counts, at Innspruck, which was supposed to confer the right of sovereignty on him who had possession of it; therefore the people considered Hofer as the prince of the country, as soon as he became master of this abode.

While these events were passing in the Tyrol, the emperor of Austria made new, but unavailing efforts to recover his independence and his territories; and he was compelled to sign another treaty with Napoleon, by which, among other conditions, he agreed to leave the unhappy Tyrolese to their fate; and then the French and Bavarians re-entered the Tyrol, where the wretched inhabitants were again subjected to their cruelties. Hofer retired from the capital, and defended himself as long as he could, in the mountains; but at length he was

taken prisoner, condemned to death, and shot as a traitor; for by that name a conqueror is apt to designate those who have spirit to defend the liberties of their country.

One of the most extraordinary events that took place about this time, was the marriage of Bonaparte with the emperor of Austria's daughter, the Archduchess Maria Louisa. Bonaparte had divorced his first wife, Josephine, for the purpose of forming this alliance, which was readily assented to both by Francis and his daughter, neither of whom evinced the least disinclination to enter into the closest ties of friendship and kindred with the greatest enemy of their country.

Germany and Prussia were now entirely under the French despotic government. The king of Prussia was obliged to join the Confederation of the Rhine, and, like all the other states belonging to it, to furnish Bonaparte with a certain number of troops, raised by conscription, and to shut all his sea ports against British trading vessels, a restriction which was also laid upon all the northern ports; so that the merchants of Great Britain could not send their ships to the towns on the Baltic sea, which not only hurt their trade, but was also a serious injury to the commerce of other countries. It was on this account that the emperor of Russia, in 1812, declared war against France, and every part of Germany was again disturbed by the march of the French armies, which passed through all the states of the Rhenish confederation, in order to increase their numbers with the soldiers that the princes of those states were bound to furnish. Then the peasants were compelled to leave the comforts of their own little cottages, for the hardships of

a camp; and their peaceful meadows and vineyards, for the horrors of the battle field.

This expedition was the ruin of Bonaparte, yet he had never been at the head of so numerous an army as was raised for this Russian campaign. French, German, and Prussian troops were assembled, and marched in vast bodies towards the same point, to await the arrival of their imperial commander, who set out from Paris, in May, 1813, with the empress; and after visiting the princes of several of the German states, and the sovereigns of Württemburg and Saxony, by whom they were entertained with great splendour, they went to Dresden, where the emperor and empress of Austria were waiting to receive them. Several days having been spent at Dresden in festivities, Bonaparte proceeded towards the Vistula, to take the command of his army, Maria Louisa returned to Paris, and her illustrious parents to Vienna.

The whole of Europe was interested in the event of the war between France and Russia, but none could foresee the complete overthrow of that power to which so many nations had been forced to submit. Bonaparte and his host reached Moscow, and took possession of the city, which had been deserted by its inhabitants at his approach.

Here the emperor purposed to remain during the winter, which had just set in; but his intentions were frustrated by the Russians, some of whom concealed themselves in various parts of the town, set fire to it in the middle of the night, and drove out the enemy into a cold, barren country, where they could find neither food nor shelter. The greater part of the many thousands of human beings led by Bonaparte into Russia, being very insufficiently clothed for so rigorous a season, thus

perished miserably in the snow, with which the face of the country was covered.

Bonaparte quitted this scene of wretchedness, and returned to Paris, alone, hoping to raise a new army by a fresh conscription; but the loss of all his best troops was irreparable, and the terror of his name was in consequence greatly diminished. Those who had submitted to him through fear, were now eager to hasten his downfall; and of these, the king of Prussia was one of the foremost on the list. The emperor of Austria, too, notwithstanding his near relationship, did not scruple to join the enemies of Bonaparte; and the princes of the Confederation of the Rhine, not excepting even the kings of his own creation, one by one deserted his falling cause.

The Russians, the Swedes, and the English, united their forces to the rest, and although the French emperor made desperate efforts to recover his power, his enemies were too numerous to give him the least chance of success. Several battles took place, but the principal one, and that which decided the contest, was fought near Leipsic, on the 18th of October, 1813.

The inhabitants of the town ascended the church steeple and posted themselves on the walls, to watch the progress of the action; and great was their joy when they beheld the French fleeing from the field, and saw the three victorious allies, Francis of Austria, Frederick William of Prussia, and Bernadotte, the crown prince of Sweden, meet in the great square of the city, for all these illustrious persons had been engaged in the battle.

Soon after this defeat, Bonaparte was obliged to resign the crown of France, and to accept from his conquerors the sovereignty of the island of Elba, in the Medi-

ranean sea, to which he retired, leaving the throne to the occupation of its lawful sovereign, Louis the Eighteenth. Maria Louisa was conveyed, with her infant son, to her father's court at Vienna; but I believe she would have preferred sharing the fallen fortunes of her husband, if she had been permitted to act according to her own inclinations.

SETTLEMENT OF EUROPE.

1814 TO 1820.

It now remained for the powers that had overthrown the empire of Napoleon to regulate the affairs of Europe, which had been so completely deranged by him; and for that purpose, it was settled that a congress of the chief sovereigns and princes, or their deputies, should meet at Vienna, to consult together upon the subject, and make such arrangements as would be most likely to secure a general and lasting peace.

It was just before this meeting took place, that the electorate of Hanover, which had been annexed to Westphalia at the time when Jerome Bonaparte was made king of that country, was erected into a kingdom, by desire of the prince regent of England, who wished to be placed on an equality, in Germany, with the kings of Wirtemburg and Bavaria. These sovereigns retained

the regal title given them by Bonaparte, because that of elector had now no dignity attached to it, in consequence of the law which had made the crown of the emperor hereditary.

George the Third was, therefore, the first king of Hanover; but as that kingdom cannot be inherited by a female, on account of the Salic law; the duke of Cumberland, as next male heir, became king of Hanover on the death of William the Fourth, and is still reigning there.

In November, 1814, the congress met at Vienna, and there were present at it the emperors of Russia and Austria, the kings of Denmark, Bavaria, and Württemberg, besides many German dukes and princes. Foreign ministers also attended on the part of the king of England, and of other potentates who were not present. This assembly continued in deliberation for several months, when a new division of Germany was made, and the smaller states were attached to the larger, by which the number of sovereignties was reduced from three hundred to thirty-eight. Before the time of Bonaparte, there were not less, I believe, than three hundred governments, or states, in Germany, all subject to the empire. Hence arises a great confusion both in the history and geography of that country.

There are now thirty-eight sovereignties, the chief of which is the empire of Austria; the next, the kingdom of Prussia; then the four kingdoms of Hanover, Saxony, Württemberg, and Bavaria. The rest consist of grand duchies, and the four free towns of Hamburg, Frankfort, Bremen, and Lübeck, which are small republics, governed by their own laws. Every other state is dependent on

one of these, and ruled by the laws of that government to which it is attached.

The emperor of Austria was restored to all his former power and territory; the emperor of Russia received the greater part of Poland, and assumed the title of king of that country; and the dominions of the king of Prussia were very much enlarged, at the expense of the aged king of Saxony, who was obliged to resign above one half of his kingdom, lie having offended the allied sovereigns by his fidelity to Bonaparte, whose cause he had supported as long as he was able.

The city of Vienna was very gay at the time of the congress, being full of foreigners, and enlivened by a variety of public entertainments given by the emperor, in honor of his illustrious visitors. Vienna is a handsome city, surrounded by a wall and a dry moat, beyond which are the suburbs, where there are many gardens and public walks; factories, workshops of all kinds, noblemen's houses, palaces, and public institutions. These suburbs are very extensive, and used to be surrounded, as well as the city, with a line of fortifications, built, in 1704, to protect Vienna from the invasions of the Turks; but the walls had been partly destroyed by the French, therefore, the inhabitants thought they might as well pull down the rest, and were engaged in this work at the time of the congress.

While Vienna was a scene of bustle and gaiety, Maria Louisa, the unfortunate consort of Bonaparte, secluded herself, with her little son, in the palace of Schönbrunn, at a short distance from the city. She could not feel much desire to participate in festivities that were to celebrate the downfall of her husband, and was not once seen at

any of the splendid balls and fêtes that were graced by the presence of so many crowned heads.

The business of the congress was not yet concluded, when the news arrived at Vienna, that Bonaparte had escaped from Elba, and was at Paris, where he had resumed the title and authority of emperor of France. This unexpected intelligence was received with a loud and general burst of laughter; but, as some one very truly observed, it was no laughing matter, since it would be sure to lead to more waste of human life, as the French soldiery had hailed his return with delight, and he was again at the head of an army sufficiently strong to take the field.

There was nothing, then, to be done, but to prepare for another battle. The congress was, therefore, hastily terminated; the allied armies were assembled, and being joined by the English, under the command of the duke of Wellington, who was at Brussels, they gained a signal and decisive victory over the French, on the plains of Waterloo; after which, Bonaparte, having surrendered himself a prisoner to the English, the war was at length brought to a termination.

The allied sovereigns then resumed the consultations with regard to the settlement of the German states, professing a desire to establish in all of them such a form of government as would secure more liberty to the people. Bonaparte had himself abolished several old feudal customs which he had found still existing in many parts of Germany; and, among others, the right of barons to have mills and ovens on their estates, to which the peasants were obliged to take their corn to be ground, and their bread to be baked, out of which a certain portion was taken, as the baron's dues.

The abolition of baronial mills and ovens was a great relief to the peasantry; but they had only exchanged one kind of slavery for another, as, while Bonaparte ruled, they were always liable to be called out as soldiers.

I was, however, about to observe, that the great sovereigns who now undertook to give a new form of government to the states of Germany, exacted a promise from all the kings and princes, that they would establish in their several dominions the representative system; that is, that the prince should not govern entirely according to his own will, but in conjunction with that of a parliament, the members of which should be chosen by the people; and to this arrangement every sovereign prince was obliged to give his assent, before he was confirmed in the possession of his dominions.

But it is one thing to make promises, and another to keep them, and it was a very long time before some of them began to make any reforms in their states; nor was this to be wondered at, when the emperor and the king of Prussia were themselves very backward in giving political freedom to their subjects, and continued to act as despotic princes. Although each kingdom and principality of Germany has its own separate Government, there is a general Diet held at Frankfort, to which members are sent from every state, the president being a delegate from Austria. The laws made in this Diet are for the whole of Germany; whereas, those made in the legislative assembly of any particular state, have no reference to any other.

Shortly after the fall of Bonaparte, a league was formed between the emperors of Austria and Russia, and the king of Prussia, termed the holy alliance, professedly for the purpose of aiding each other to govern

according to true Christian principles; but it is said that the secret purpose of this association, the proceedings of which were never made public, was to uphold despotism, and to check, as much as possible, the growing spirit of liberty among the people.

I have now brought my history down to the year 1820, the date of the opening of the first general Diet at Frankfort. Since that time all the principal sovereigns then reigning in Germany have died, and their places have been supplied mostly by princes of a less despotic character. It now only remains to mention the most striking events that have taken place within the last twenty years, and then we will take our leave of Germany, so far as its political history is concerned, and devote the remaining pages to a review of the present state of society in various parts of the country.

GERMANY.

1820 TO 1841.

IN 1821, George the Fourth paid a visit to his kingdom of Hanover, and entered its capital in state, amid the acclamations of the populace, who testified their delight by illuminating their houses, and devoting ten days to festivities of all kinds.

Since the year 1816, the duke of Cambridge had acted as governor in Hanover, and many reforms had been made; among which were, the abolition of torture,

which had been in use up to that late period; and an alteration in the system of taxation, by which the nobility were obliged to pay their share, as well as the inferior classes.

Yet, notwithstanding these beneficial changes, the people became dissatisfied, and when a revolution took place in France in 1830, the Hanoverians, in imitation of the French, rose in a tumultuous manner against the government. The students of the university of Gottingen made themselves very conspicuous in these popular disturbances, which were, at length, suppressed by the intervention of the military.

Then our King William the Fourth gave a new constitution to his Hanoverian subjects, who were to have a parliament like that of Great Britain, consisting of two houses; the upper house to be composed of the princes of the royal family, the nobles, and a few persons who held particular offices, and were chosen for life by the king; and the lower house to consist of deputies from the towns, landholders, farmers, and the representatives of the religious establishments belonging to the Roman Catholics, of whom there were a great number within the Hanoverian dominions, although the established religion was the Protestant. The deputies were to be elected for six years, and were to meet annually.

When William the Fourth died in 1837, the crown of Hanover being restricted to the male branch, could not be inherited by our queen; therefore, it went to the deceased monarch's eldest surviving brother, the duke of Cumberland, who immediately went to take possession of his new dominions, where he is still reigning, by the title of Ernest Augustus the First. This monarch has

again changed the form of government to what it was before William the Fourth granted the new constitution; an alteration which, I believe, does not give very general satisfaction to his subjects.

The next state which claims our attention is the duchy of Brunswick, which is very intimately connected with the kingdom of Hanover, the sovereigns of both having derived their origin from the same source, as I have before explained. The possessions of the two branches of this family, were distinguished as Brunswick Wolfenbuttel, and Brunswick Lunenburg; and as the present kingdom of Hanover formed a part of the territories of the latter, the princes of that house were electors of Hanover, and became sovereigns of England; while the princes of the ducal line of Wolfenbuttel retained, and still retain, the title of dukes of Brunswick.

Ferdinand, duke of Brunswick, lost his life at the battle of Jena, when his duchy was seized by Napoleon, and annexed to the new kingdom of Westphalia; while his son, William Frederick, remained an exile from his native home, until the peace restored to him his inheritance. Unfortunately, however, he did not live long to enjoy it; for on the return of Bonaparte from Elba, he joined the allied forces, and bravely fell in the action that took place the day before the battle of Waterloo. His son Charles being a minor, was placed under the guardianship of his uncle, the prince regent of England, who managed the affairs of the duchy till the young duke came of age, when he took the administration into his own hands; but he governed so badly, that an insurrection took place, the ducal palace was burnt down by the mob, and the duke was obliged to make his escape to England. His younger brother, William, a prince

of more moderation, with some difficulty restored tranquillity; and in the following year, the sovereignty of the duchy was bestowed on him, with the consent of the king of England and the German Diet.

Duke Charles made an attempt, in 1832, to get up a conspiracy at Paris, for the purpose of deposing his brother; but he was banished in consequence, and has ever since resided in England; while Duke William is reigning in peace in the duchy of Brunswick.

The capital of this state was, in the time of Henry the Lion, a mere farm, bearing the name of Brunswick. That great prince improved and enlarged it, and, in the thirteenth century, it became one of the Hanse towns. It is now a very fine city, containing, besides the ducal palace, many handsome public buildings; and, near the town, is the duke's country house, which is called Richmond, and has a park, which is laid out in imitation of Richmond park in England. The manufactures of Brunswick are woollens, linens, hardware, china, coloured papers, and various other commodities, all of which are made in great perfection. There are two great fairs held every year, and the city contains many excellent charitable institutions.

Saxony, once the greatest of the German nations, is now a very limited state. In the days of Charlemagne, and long afterwards, more than half of Germany was known by this name; till towards the close of the fifteenth century, the country had been divided into ten large provinces, called circles; but after that period, the vast extent of territory that had been known by the general name of Saxony, was formed into the three circles of Upper and Lower Saxony, and Westphalia. When Bonaparte dissolved the German empire, and established

the Confederation of the Rhine, he abolished the circles; and fixed the limits himself of the new kingdoms that he formed. Of these, Saxony was one, and the title of king was bestowed on the elector, Frederick Augustus, in 1806, when, after the battle of Jena, he joined the Confederation of the Rhine.

After Bonaparte's unfortunate campaign in Russia, the king of Saxony assisted him in continuing the war against the allied sovereigns, and was made prisoner, and detained in captivity twenty months; his dominions being governed, in the meantime, by Russian and Prussian authorities. It was on account of his adherence to the cause of Bonaparte, that the congress of Vienna deprived him of half his kingdom, as before stated, and added it to Prussia; by which partition, the king of Saxony lost some valuable salt-works, forests, and corn districts; but the chief manufacturing parts of the country were left to him, and, during the remainder of his life, he devoted his attention to the establishment of useful institutions.

In 1818, he abolished an old custom, by which the Jews had been restricted to a particular part of Leipsic during the fairs; but the native peasantry were still burthened with taxes, and not allowed to work at any of the trades carried on in the towns; so that they were very poor.

Frederick Augustus died in 1827, at an advanced age, and was succeeded by his brother, Anthony Theodore, also a very old man, who entrusted the affairs of the government to his nephew, who is now king of Saxony; the aged monarch Anthony having died in 1836.

The present reigning king of Bavaria, is Louis, the son of him who was so cruel to the Tyrolese. Louis

succeeded to the throne of Bavaria in 1824, and in 1832, his son Otho was made king of Greece.

The kingdom of Wirtemburg is an agricultural, and not a manufacturing country; orchards abound in its valleys, and vineyards on its mountains, while corn is grown in abundance, and cattle, sheep, and poultry, are reared all over the country. The first king of Wirtemburg, who was of a very arbitrary disposition, died very soon after the downfall of Bonaparte; a circumstance that occasioned but little regret, as he was much inclined to despotism, and refused to grant to his people the representative form of government, which he had promised, at the congress, to establish in his dominions. His son William, the present king, who is first cousin to the queen of England, being an enlightened and liberal-minded prince, altered the form of government according to the wishes of the people, and instituted a regular parliament in Wirtemburg.

Westphalia is no longer an independent kingdom, but belongs to the king of Prussia. Hungary, Bohemia, and Transylvania, form part of the Austrian dominions; and are now under the government of the Emperor Ferdinand, who succeeded to the imperial throne of Austria, on the death of his father, Francis the Second, in the year 1835.

The principal German states are about twenty-six in number; but there are many smaller duchies and principalities, amounting, in the whole, to thirty-eight, each of which is governed by a sovereign prince. The emperor is considered the head of all these princes, but has no absolute authority over them; for each of them enjoys the rights of a free and independent sovereign. The tie which unites all these princes together, is the

general Diet at Frankfort, at which all their deputies assemble, to consult and make laws for the benefit of the whole. This is called the Germanic Confederation, and keeps up a union among the states, which is very desirable; for the country would naturally fall into a sad state of confusion, if the many different governments existing in it, had no interests in common to bind them to each other. The dominions of the emperor are very extensive, including all the country from Russia to Italy, with part of Poland, Hungary, Bohemia, and several Italian states, the chief of which are Venice and Milan.

PRUSSIA.

THE origin of the kingdom of Prussia has already been related, and its history told up to the time when the emperor Leopold bestowed the title of king on Frederick, the son of the great elector. The Prussian states, for a long time, consisted of unconnected portions of territory, separated from each other by the dominions of other princes, till Frederick the Great united them together by his conquests over those whose territories were intervening.

I have told you how the great elector of Brandenburg founded the prosperity of Prussia, by settling colonies of French emigrants in lands that had been depopulated by the wars. He spent immense sums of money in improving the towns both in Prussia and Brandenburg,

some of which in his time were paved, and lighted with lanthorns, and the comfort of the inhabitants was thereby very much increased, for the streets had previously been in such a miserable state from the want of paving, that gentlemen who had no carriages were obliged to go court on stilts.

The first king of Prussia was proud and fond of display. It was his ambition to maintain as splendid a court as that of Louis the Fourteenth, to see every body about him dressed in the French style, and attentive to all the forms of etiquette. However, he continued to encourage the emigrants from France, giving them houses with lands to cultivate, and the means of carrying on their different trades; so that all kinds of useful arts were brought into Prussia, such as the manufacture of stuffs, hats, stockings, and a variety of other articles of general utility.

Frederick the First died in the year 1713, when his son, Frederick William, became king of Prussia, and elector of Brandenburg. This prince was a direct contrast to his father in every respect, being a decided enemy to all that was grand or expensive. His delight was in military glory; his only companions were his soldiers, and his greatest ambition was to have the finest army in the world.

For the purpose of accomplishing this object, his officers were authorised to press into his service as soldiers, all the tallest men they could find, without regard to their employment. If a peasant happened to be six feet high, there was no escape for him; he was sure to be marched off among the recruits that were constantly augmenting the Prussian army. The king exercised his troops daily, and smoked and drank beer

with the officers, for he possessed so little refinement himself, that he had the greatest contempt for all knowledge except of military tactics, and even treated the common acquirements of reading and writing with ridicule, as if they were superfluous and unbecoming in a soldier.

His dress and style of living were as rough as his manners; the former being very like that of a drill serjeant, and the latter more suited to a camp than a court. Yet he was one of the most arbitrary princes of his time, and would not suffer the slightest contradiction to his will. This soldierlike monarch was the father of Frederick the Great, who is sometimes called Frederick the Second, and sometimes Frederick the Third, because his father was named Frederick William, and was usually called by both those appellations, whereas his grandfather had only the one name of Frederick.

The mind of Frederick the Great was formed in a very different mould from that of his father, and received its earliest impressions from the precepts of a French lady who was entrusted with the care of his infant years; but ere he had reached the age of ten, the king was so anxious to make him a good soldier, that he formed a regiment of boys, of which the young prince was appointed commander, and these little troops assembled every day on parade, when the king was exercising his tall soldiers, and were taught to imitate all their movements.

Every command given by the king was mimicked by the prince, and every manœuvre of the soldiers watched and imitated by his tiny regiment. He thus received an early bias towards a military life; but in after years he was as much an advocate of peace as of war. I may

here observe that he was grandson of our king George the First, his mother being the daughter of that monarch.

As long as his father lived, he spent a great deal of time in the acquirement of elegant accomplishments, particularly music, poetry, and French literature; which made the king so angry, that he would sometimes break his flute, and throw his music books into the fire. The harshness of this rough sovereign was at times carried so far that, on one occasion, he actually condemned his son to death for some breach of military duty, an offence he never pardoned; and although the life of the prince was spared at the intercession of the emperor of Austria, he was kept for a long time in prison.

At last, Frederick William died, leaving to his son a fine army and a rich treasury, for he had always been very frugal in his expenses; and these advantages enabled his successor to raise his country to an equality with the most powerful states of Europe. In the same year that Frederick the Great ascended the throne of Prussia, the emperor Charles the Sixth, died, and those disputes arose respecting the inheritance of his daughter, which led to so much warfare. Frederick was one of those who laid claim to a part of the Austrian dominions, his view being to secure possession of such portions of the country as separated the different parts of his own scattered territories.

In the war that followed, the Prussian monarch conquered the whole of Silesia, a large province, which has ever since formed a part of the Prussian states. Silesia had once been a fine fertile country, until it was desolated by the thirty years' war, the effects of which were still visible in every district. Lands were lying uncultivated,

towns and villages were still partly in ruins, and the greater part of the people were scarcely able to obtain the means of subsistence. It was only in the principal towns that any signs of wealth or gaiety appeared; the rest was a desert, scarcely half peopled, and exhibiting on every side traces of fire and sword.

Such was the country in which Frederick the Great made his first campaign, and which he subdued with very little trouble; for the Silesians offered but little opposition, and the principal part of the Austrian troops were engaged in fighting against the French and Bavarians in Bohemia. The king of Prussia soon taught his new subjects to regard him as a friend, rather than as a conqueror, winning the hearts of the higher classes by his courteous manners, and of the lower orders by the substantial benefits he conferred on them.

As long as the war lasted, Frederick had enough to do to maintain his conquest, but when it was concluded by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, and Silesia was given up to him, as related in the reign of Maria Theresa, he spared neither trouble nor expense to restore the country to its former prosperity. The first step towards this desirable object was to people the lands that were uninhabited, therefore, he offered to give to any industrious man who was willing to settle in these deserted places, a house, a barn, and a stable, with twenty acres of land, seed to sow it, and cattle enough to stock his farm.

Such inducements as these could not fail to attract many farmers from various parts of Germany, whose property had been destroyed during the late war, and who were glad to avail themselves of the king's munificence, in order to obtain a home for their wives and children. Some of the land granted to the new settlers was

covered with forest trees, which had to be cut down before the earth could be cultivated; but in such cases, Frederick took care to supply his colonists with the means of subsistence, until there had been time to clear the woods, and convert them into corn fields and pasture, and even then, all the colonists were exempted from taxes of every kind, and also from military service for a certain number of years, that they might have full leisure to attend to the improvement of their land.

By these judicious arrangements, many a large tract of country, that had for years been an uninhabited wilderness, was soon covered with farms, and enlivened by an industrious population.

Besides peopling the waste lands, the king granted money to rebuild the towns and villages which had been suffered to remain partly in ruins, ever since the thirty years' war; and in all new buildings he ordered that the chimneys and ovens should be made of stone instead of wood, as a safeguard against fire. The houses in Silesia had hitherto been constructed, as they were in Poland, of the trunks of trees, placed horizontally on each other, and covered with straw and shingles; even the dwellings of many of the barons were of the same rude description before the time of Frederick the Great, and the furniture was chiefly formed of the wood in its rough state, the branches being entwined together, as we sometimes see in garden chairs.

Such houses as these were very liable to be set on fire, yet the common people were in general so careless that it was with the greatest difficulty they could be prevented from carrying lighted chips, instead of lanthorns, into their stables and barns, or drying hemp and flax in their houses; so that it was absolutely necessary to

institute punishments for such offences. The king considered it of so much importance to guard against fire, that he made a law, by which every man was obliged to keep leathern buckets in his house, and the inhabitants of every village to fix a pump in such a situation as would afford the most ready means of obtaining water.

All new houses in the towns were built of stone, as they were at Berlin, and other cities of Prussia; and thus, in the course of a few years, no part of Germany was more populous, better cultivated, or possessed handsomer towns than the formerly-desolated province of Silesia. All these improvements were going on well, when their progress was suddenly arrested by the breaking out of the seven' years war, during which Frederick was constantly in the field.

It was rather singular that a war, which had its origin in America, should be carried on with so much violence in Germany; but the reason is simple enough, as the quarrel arose between the French and English respecting the boundaries of Canada and the United States, the former belonging to the French, the latter to the English. The French, therefore, being hostile to the English, were eager to deprive the king of England of his electorate of Hanover, and accordingly invaded that country.

Then Maria Theresa, being in alliance with the English monarch, and moreover being desirous of preventing the French from establishing a dominion in any part of Germany, raised troops in Bohemia and Hungary to oppose them. She had also another motive for this war, which was to check the growing power of the king of Prussia, and in this object she was seconded by the Russians, who were beginning to view him with some apprehension. Frederick was, therefore, obliged to take measures for

the defence of his kingdom; and thus, the French, English, Russians, Prussians, and Austrians, were all at war.

The whole force of the Russians was directed against the Prussian states, which they ravaged in the most frightful manner; while Frederick led his armies into Bohemia, where several terrible battles took place, and the city of Prague sometimes was in possession of one party, sometimes of the other.

The miseries occasioned by this war were lamentable, the peasants neglected to plough and sow their fields, because they knew that before the corn was ripe it would be trodden down by the armies that were constantly marching through the provinces in all directions. The scarcity was so great in Saxony, that a bushel of wheat was sold for twenty crowns; and many parts of that country were entirely deserted. Frederick the Second, by the talents he displayed in this war of seven years, established his fame as the greatest military hero of his time, on account of the wonderful ability with which he maintained all his possessions against so many united powers.

One of the most remarkable events that took place during the seven years' war, was the siege of Dresden, when the Prussians battered down the walls of that city, destroyed its cathedral and palace, with several of the principal streets and squares, and burned down the suburbs, where most of the valuable manufactures of Saxony were carried on; and among the buildings that were destroyed on this occasion, was the celebrated china manufactory. The destruction of property is not the only result of warfare which we have to lament; and on considering its other consequences, (among which, is the

effect it always has of throwing numbers of people out of employment, and reducing them to beggary and starvation,) we must shudder to see the pages of history filled with accounts of battles and sieges; and when we are told that, at the close of this memorable war, the conquests that had been made by all parties were restored, and that each country was placed in the same position it occupied before the commencement of hostilities, we cannot help wondering to what purpose so much blood was shed, and so many thousands of families were involved in ruin.

Let us turn once more from these revolting details, to scenes of a more pleasing nature. No sooner did Frederick the Great find himself again at liberty to attend to the internal affairs of the kingdom, than he pursued with ardour the system he had so successfully begun. His first care was to remedy the evils of the late war, by distributing corn to the peasants to sow their fields, and money to the townspeople to rebuild their houses. He also built, at his own expense, many handsome towns, of stone, both in Prussia and Silesia, thus giving employment to a great number of labourers.

Then, with a view to encourage home manufactures, he prohibited the importation of foreign goods, such as silks, cottons, chintzes, and other articles of dress, that people might be obliged to wear those made in Prussia; but he had much difficulty to enforce this prohibition, and was obliged to employ a great many custom-house officers to prevent contraband trading, which, notwithstanding, was carried on to a great extent.

The trade of Prussia was at this time very considerable both at home and abroad. Ships came from every part

of Europe to the port of Koningsburg, laden with all kinds of merchandise; and took away, in return, corn, hemp, hides, boards, and timber for masts of ships, as well as for building. In the course of time, manufactures flourished in every part of the Prussian dominions, and the linens, woollen stuffs, and cottons, of Prussia, were sent into all the German states, Italy, Switzerland, France, Russia, and even to China.

There was a large porcelain manufactory at Berlin, established by Frederick the Second, who also built a magnificent opera house in that city. It was to this monarch that the peasantry of the Prussian states owed their emancipation from feudal slavery, and were enabled to become proprietors of land.

You have seen in what manner he established a race of free peasants in Silesia, by granting them lands which he made hereditary; and finding this system answered his expectations, he offered gratuities to all noblemen who should form settlements on their estates on the same plan, by giving land to farming men, in full possession, without any feudal services whatever attached to it. This land was to be inherited by their children; and thus a numerous race of free peasantry were soon found in Silesia, engaged in the cultivation of their own flourishing farms. There were about two hundred and fifty villages built in various parts of the country, and in each of them the king established a school for the children of the peasants.

I say the king established these schools, because he not only gave orders that there should be a school in every village, but settled the plan of instruction to be pursued, and took a great deal of pains to see that fitting schoolmasters were provided, whose salaries were

to be paid by a tax on the richer part of the population. This was a real blessing to the Silesians, who were so utterly ignorant, that it was a difficult matter to find a sufficient number of men who were capable of undertaking the office of parish schoolmasters, although they were only required to teach reading and writing.

The king, therefore, having consulted with some of the most learned abbés, arranged that one of them should turn his monastery into a seminary, for the instruction of young men who desired to be fitted for the duties of schoolmasters; and thus, in a very few years, there were plenty of good teachers, and all the young villagers knew how to read and write.

Before the time of Frederick the Great, there were no regular markets in Silesia. Many towns had neither butcher, baker, brewer, nor shopkeeper of any kind; but in rebuilding these towns, the king took care there should be a good market-place in each, and fixed the market days. Most of his towns, both in Prussia and Silesia, were garrisoned; but this was rather an advantage than otherwise to the inhabitants, because the soldiers were regularly paid by the king, and were obliged to pay for every thing they were supplied with by the tradespeople, who were glad to have so many regular customers.

Still the king was a very arbitrary monarch, and would only do good in his own way, and in some instances he was very oppressive. He laid taxes on all articles of food, which made provisions dear; and then he had bad money coined, which he paid to the soldiers, and workmen employed in public works, who did not object to receiving it, because the tradespeople and farmers were obliged to take it of them. But it was a serious injury to the traders and peasantry to be thus obliged to part

with their goods for bad money, particularly as the government officers were ordered not to receive it back in payment for taxes, for the king was cunning enough not to allow any of his false coin to find its way into his own treasury; therefore, in course of time, he had all the good money, and his people all the bad, which gave rise to much discontent.

One day, in passing a baker's shop, he heard the baker quarrelling with a man at his shop-door; and as the king was always curious to know what was going forward, he stopped to enquire what was the matter. The baker, who did not know him, said that the man refused to take the money for his corn, at the same time exhibiting some of the base coin that was in general circulation. "And why will you not take the money, friend?" said the king. The peasant, who knew him very well, replied significantly, "Would you take it yourself?" on which the king walked away, without saying another word. He was, however, a good friend to the lower orders generally, never refusing to hear their complaints against their superiors, and to see justice done them.

The labouring classes were, by this means, made much more independent of the nobles; for if a poor man considered himself wronged by a rich one, he did not fear to put on his hat, and say, "I will go and tell the king." The Prussian soldiers were obliged to conduct themselves in an orderly manner, as they marched through the country; and although the peasants were obliged to lodge them, and supply them with food, as well as to furnish waggons and horses, if required, they were paid for all these services, which had never been the case before.

The importance attached by the king of Prussia to the profession of arms, caused the burghers, and all who were engaged in trade, to be treated with some degree of contempt, as a class inferior to the soldiers; and this was carried so far, notwithstanding the encouragement given to commerce and manufactures, that all tradesmen were forbidden to converse on political subjects, and the magistrates were held responsible for the observance of this order; who in consequence employed spies in every direction, and people were afraid to speak of the king or the wars, even before their own servants.

I have already spoken of the unjust means by which the king of Prussia, and the two empresses of Austria and Russia, obtained possession of Poland, and divided it among themselves; but I have not told you of the cruelty of the Prussians towards the unfortunate Poles, nor of the oppressive conduct of Frederick, with regard to the city of Dantzig, one of the most flourishing towns of the Baltic. The melancholy details of the ruins of this once great city, and the flight of thousands of its inhabitants, belong to the history of Poland; therefore, I have only alluded to the facts here; and I have done so, because the dismemberment of Poland was one of the most remarkable circumstances that transpired in the reign of Frederick the Great, and the fact that he behaved most cruelly and unjustly towards the Poles, ought not to be suppressed.

When Frederick the Second died in 1786, he left to his nephew, Frederick William the Second, by some called Frederick the Third, an extensive and prosperous kingdom, a large and well-disciplined army, and a well-filled treasury; but he could not leave him his own great talents, by which Prussia had been raised to power and

fame; nor could he foresee the coming of the French revolution, which was destined to undo so much that he had done. The new king reigned only eleven years, during which period, the country was far from being so well governed as in the time of Frederick the Great.

He was succeeded, in 1797, by his son, Frederick William, the late king of Prussia, who, after being deprived of the greater part of his dominions by the French emperor, saw himself restored to them all, by the general peace that followed the battle of Waterloo. This prince shewed in childhood a daring and determined character, an instance of which is recorded in the following anecdote. He was one day playing with a shuttlecock near a table where his uncle, Frederick the Great, was writing, and as the toy fell several times close to the ink-stand, and, at last, on the paper, the king took it up, and put it into his pocket. The little prince begged he would give it back to him; but the king continued to write without taking any notice of his entreaties, till the child grew angry, and putting his hands to his sides, he approached with a look of defiance, saying, "I ask your majesty whether you will give me back my shuttlecock, or not? so, answer me, yes or no." The king took the bauble from his pocket, and giving it to the boy, said, " You are a brave little fellow, they will never take Silesia from you;" but the prophecy was not fulfilled, for the French took Silesia, and a great deal more of the Prussian territories.

The events that took place, from the breaking out of the French revolution, until the fall of Bonaparte, and the settlement of Europe by the congress of Vienna, have been already related. The king of Prussia not

only regained all the territories he had lost, but his kingdom was enlarged by the addition of a great part of Saxony, therefore, it has again become a large and powerful kingdom.

During the last ten years, the Prussians have suffered very much from the intolerant spirit of the late king, with regard to religion. He desired that every body should conform to the rules of the established church, and those who dissented from it, were subjected to such heavy penalties, that a great number of families have been obliged to emigrate to America.

The king of Prussia died in June 1840, and was succeeded by his son, Frederick William the Fourth, who is forty-five years of age, and said to be a prince of very superior attainments. The kings of Prussia are not crowned; but on their accession, they receive oaths of allegiance from the people, and, in return, promise to govern according to the laws of the country.

HOUSE OF SAXE COBURG.

ALTHOUGH it does not suit the limits of this work to make particular mention of all the German states, still there is one which possesses an interest beyond the rest, and of which a brief account, it is presumed, will be acceptable,—I mean the principality of Saxe-Coburg.

The founder of this illustrious house, was Duke

The founder of this illustrious house, was Duke Ernest the First, of the family of the electors of Saxony, who obtained the sovereignty of Saxe Coburg at the close of the thirty years' war, and left his dominions among his seven sons, who founded the seven branches of that house, of which Gotha is the chief. Saxe Coburg Gotha is one of the thirty-eight independent sovereignties of Germany; and the reigning Duke Ernest is the father of Prince Albert, who is now the consort of the queen of Great Britain.

During the reign of Bonaparte, Duke Ernest, who was then the duke of Saxe Coburg Saalfeld, served in the Prussian army, and his estates were seized by the French, who kept possession of them until the peace of Tilsit, when the king of Prussia entered into an alliance with France, and the duke of Saxe Cobourg Saalfeld was reinstated in his dominions. They had suffered great damage by the occupation of the French troops, who had despoiled all the public buildings of every thing curious or valuable, and reduced the whole country to a miserable state of poverty.

By the death of the duke of Gotha, in 1806, Duke Ernest came into possession of his estates; and in 1826, changed his title to that of duke of Saxe Coburg and Gotha. Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, now king of the Belgians, is his younger brother, and the duchess of Kent is his sister; therefore, Prince Albert is first-cousin to the queen, the duchess of Kent being his aunt. The son of another brother of Duke Ernest is married to the queen of Portugal.

Saxe Coburg Gotha is the most southern state in Lower Saxony. Its whole extent, including some territories that were annexed to it after the general peace,

does not exceed that of the county of Devon. The southern part of the duchy is mountainous and woody, a large tract being covered by a part of the remains of the ancient forest of Thuringia, usually called the Black Forest, which is a valuable possession, on account of the large revenue derived from the sale of its timber. The northern district is an open country, yielding abundance of corn; and in the mountains, there are mines of iron, coal, and slate.

The peasantry of Saxe Gotha are employed in agriculture and manufactures of various kinds. It has five paper-mills, three china and three hardware manufactures, besides iron foundries, and factories of stuffs, cottons, stockings, tobacco, and glass, therefore, the people have sufficient scope for their industry; and I have been told, that this duchy is the most populous, the best cultivated, and, for its size, one of the most prosperous states of the German empire.

There are schools in all the villages for the instruction of the peasantry, and large seminaries in the towns, for the education of the children of the gentry and citizens. Coburg is the largest and gayest town; but Gotha is more frequented by persons of taste and learning, on account of its public libraries, museum, and some fine collections of pictures. The government of Saxe Coburg and Gotha is representative; the citizens electing their own deputies to send to the Diet.

Prince Albert was born in 1819, at the castle of Ehrenburg, the general residence of the duke, his father. On the death of his mother, he was sent to England, being then about eleven years of age, and remained in this country about fifteen months, during which time, his father, the duke of Saxe Coburg Gotha, married a very amiable lady, a princess of Wirtemburg.

The young prince, while in England, received lessons in the English language and music, with his cousin, the Princess Victoria; and it was at that time the friendship was formed between the illustrious students, that led to the happy union, which has lately taken place between them. When the prince returned to his own country, he completed his studies at the university of Bonn, where he was distinguished not only by his superior talents, but by his amiable manners, and gentlemanly behaviour; the latter being rather a remarkable trait in a student of that university, as the young gentlemen there are not celebrated for regularity of conduct.

In the year 1838, Prince Albert returned to England, accompanied by his father, to be present at the coronation of his former companion; after which, he returned to Gotha, and then went to Italy, where he spent the winter.

Soon after his return, it began to be whispered among the people of the duchy, that their young prince was about to form a splendid alliance; and on the eighth of December, 1839, the approaching marriage of Prince Albert with the queen of England, was publicly announced, and congratulations were received by his parents, the duke and duchess, at the castle of Ehrenburg. Before the departure of the prince from his native country, a magnificent entertainment was given at the castle, to above a hundred and sixty distinguished guests, when the neighbouring peasantry were admitted into the great hall, to see the company, and to offer their good wishes for the happiness of the prince, who was much beloved among them.

Prince Albert has an elder brother, Prince Ernest, who will, in all probability, succeed his father, as duke of Saxe Coburg Gotha.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF HUNGARY.

THE oriental denomination of the Hungarians is Magyar, so called from one of their principal tribes, which probably derived its name from some great chief; but the Greeks called them Turks or Tartars, because they were of the same race as that mighty people who extended their empire from the confines of China to the banks of the Volga; and in the Roman histories, they are called Huns.

The Hungarians, therefore, had their origin from the same source as the Turks, and came from the northern parts of Asia, which were inhabited by many roving tribes, who were both shepherds and warriors, and set up their leather tents wherever they found the best pasture for the thousands of sheep and oxen that accompanied them in their marches.

I have already mentioned the first appearance of the Huns in Europe, and the rapid conquests that enabled them to establish a kingdom in the heart of Germany. They first settled in that part of ancient Dacia, which is now called Transylvania, and by degrees conquered all the provinces that form the kingdom of Hungary, the most considerable of which was Pannonia.

In the tenth century, Hungary was divided among

several petty princes, who all acknowledged the superiority of a chief styled the Great Prince, although it does not appear that he had much authority over the rest, as any one of them had a right to raise an army, and go to war without his sanction.

The Magyar were Pagans, and worshipped the sun, the moon, and many idols of their own creation; but towards the end of the tenth century, missionaries were sent among them to teach Christianity, and the famous St. Adalbert, bishop of Prague, baptised the son of the grand prince, Geysa, by the name of Stephen. On the death of Geysa, Stephen succeeded as grand prince, and soon became celebrated for the zeal he displayed in converting his heathen subjects to the Christian faith, in which he was so successful, that the pope, as a reward for his pious endeavours, bestowed on him the title of king, and sent him the crown, which has ever since been held in high veneration by the Hungarians, and is still used at the coronation of a king of Hungary, a dignity that at present belongs to the emperor of Austria.

The memory of Stephen the First, who is better known as St. Stephen, is greatly respected by the people even at this day; and deservedly so, as he was at once the religious instructor as well as the lawgiver of his subjects, and in some degree softened their manners, and sowed the seeds of civilisation among them. The laws made by St. Stephen, were similar to those of all barbarous nations, every crime being punished by the loss of some member of the body, as the nose, the ears, the hands, &c., or the payment of a fine, proportioned to the enormity of the offence committed; and this code was in force in Hungary, with very little alteration, for

several centuries. St. Stephen founded several bishoprics, and erected monasteries and churches in various parts of the country.

It was at this period that Hungary was first divided into separate governments called counties, over each of which was appointed a governor, with the title of count Palatine, in the same manner as in Germany, and these Palatinates were the chief magnates or nobles of the kingdom. The province of Transylvania was finally subdued by St. Stephen, who formed it into a distinct government, and placed over it a prince whose title was Vaivode, and who held his principality as a fief of the crown.

The Hungarians lived much in the same manner as the ancient Germans, and elected their kings in the national assemblies, where every freeman had a voice. The slaves who tilled the land, were captives taken in the wars, and were in the most wretched state of servitude. The freemen were all trained to arms, but they were so backward in civilisation, that as late as the twelfth century, they lived in tents in the summer, according to the custom of their eastern ancestors; and when the nobles went to court, they took their seats with them, as did also those who went to visit their friends in the winter, when they rolled up their tents and took up their abode in huts, made of mud or reeds, and not very well provided with furniture, as we may suppose; since, as I have just observed, the people were obliged to carry their own wooden stools with them when they paid their visits. In Buda and Pest, the two best towns, the houses were mostly of wood, but these were two ancient cities, built by the Romans.

It is not worth while to make mention of all the early

kings of Hungary, as there is little to tell of these barbarian warriors, except of the conquests they made, by which the boundaries of the kingdom were gradually extended. The government was entirely despotic until the reign of Andrew the Second, the eighth king in succession from St. Stephen, who was elected to the throne at a time when the fashion of crusading was at its greatest height, and, like other princes of the age, undertook an expedition to the Holy Land, and almost ruined his country by the enormous expenses he incurred.

During his absence, the nobles, many of whom remained at home, took the opportunity of seizing the estates belonging to the crown, and augmenting their own power, so that when the king returned, he found his authority very much diminished, and as the nobles were able to raise a larger army than he could, it was useless for him to go to war with them; in order, therefore, to preserve his crown, he was obliged to grant a new constitution, which forms the basis of the Hungarian government at this very day.

By the new laws, the property belonging to the magnates and clergy was exempted from taxation; fiefs that had been granted for military service were made hereditary, while their possessors were freed from the obligation of finding troops, at their own expense, to go on foreign service; and above all, they were to be at liberty to arm their vassals against the sovereign, if he should attempt to infringe on any of these privileges. This revolution made a great alteration in the state and condition of the people of Hungary, as the taxes fell now entirely on the peasantry, who were thus burthened beyond their means, and scarcely able to maintain themselves by their labour; while the rich paid nothing, and

possessed the power of oppressing their tenants as much as they pleased.

It was soon after this change, that the Mogul Tartars, a formidable nation, who had established a vast empire in the east, and conquered a great part of Russia, entered Hungary, desolating the country with fire and sword wherever they came. The people fled to the woods and mountains, and happy were they who thus escaped being carried away into slavery, which was the fate of thousands.

The king, Bela the fourth, who had succeeded his father Andrew, concealed himself in a cave, until the Tartars, having plundered all the towns, left the country, carrying with them an immense booty, and great numbers of captives. Then Bela quitted his retreat, collected his scattered subjects, and set to work to rebuild the towns that had been laid in ashes by the enemy; but the population of the country was so much decreased, that there were not sufficient people, either to perform this labour, or to cultivate the devastated lands; therefore, he endeavoured to re-people the country with colonies from Bohemia and Croatia, and succeeded so well, that in a few years it began to show signs of returning prosperity.

However, another Tartar invasion in the reign of Ladislaus the Third, again reduced it to so deplorable a state, that the nobles were obliged to till their own fields for want of men and cattle.

On the death of Ladislaus, in the year 1290, there were several competitors for the throne, which occasioned a civil war, as two princes were elected by different parties. This contest had lasted eleven years, when the rivals both died in the same year, and Andrew, the young king of Naples, was made king of Hungary.

This unfortunate prince was married to Joan, queen of Naples, in her own right. She was his cousin, but had never regarded him with the slightest degree of affection; and as he was murdered soon after his election to the throne of Hungary, under very suspicious circumstances, it was generally believed that the queen was the instigator of the wicked deed; but though her guilt was never proved, yet her innocence was never fully established, and her memory is clouded with doubt, like that of Mary, queen of Scots, in reference to the fate of Darnley.

The crown was then bestowed on Louis, the brother of the murdered king, who afterwards became king of Poland; and at his death, his daughter was chosen to reign in Hungary. The marriage of this princess with Sigismund, emperor of Germany, subjected Hungary to the imperial crown.

For a long period, the country was very much distressed by the religious wars between the imperialists and the insurgents, and by the invasions of the Turks, as I have already related in a former part of this history. The Turks, you must understand, had not yet firmly established their empire in Europe, for the Greek emperors still reigned at Constantinople, while the Ottoman Sultans held their court at Adrianople, which had been the second city of the Greek empire.

They had several times entered the Hungarian territories, where they did not meet with any very powerful opposition, until the great general Huniades, in the time of Frederick the Third, emperor of Germany, took the field against them. Huniades was the prince or Vaivode of Transylvania, and gained several great victories over the sultan, Amurath the First, and successfully defended

the city of Belgrade, to which the Turks had laid siege in the year 1435. In return for the good service he had performed, he was made governor of Hungary, during the minority of the young king Ladislaus, who was detained at the court of the emperor Frederick; but having incurred a suspicion of disloyalty he was obliged to give his son as a hostage, and this youth, at the death of his father, was a prisoner at Prague, in the custody of George Podiebrad, the king of Bohemia.

Ladislaus, the young king of Hungary, did not live long after he came into possession of the throne, and the Diet of election then fixed on the son of their late brave general Huniades, Matthias Corvinus, who was still in captivity. Podiebrad heard the news of this election as he was sitting at supper, and sent immediately for his youthful prisoner, who was then only eighteen years of age, and who came into his presence pale and trembling, expecting to be put to death, for he had not yet been informed of his own good fortune. Great, therefore, was his surprise, when the king desired him to sit down at the upper end of the table, and when he hesitated to do so, arose, and with much courtesy, offered him the most honourable place, telling him at the same time, that he had some good news to communicate. "It would be good news, indeed," answered the young man, "if your majesty would be pleased to grant me my liberty." "Aye, and so it shall be," said the king; "and not only thy liberty shalt thou have, but the noble kingdom of Hungary to boot; and a fair maiden for thy wife, even our own daughter."

The joy of the newly elected monarch, who was about to exchange a prison for a palace, may be readily imagined; and having paid a large sum for his ransom,

(for Podiebrad, although he had spoken to him so courteously, would not let him go, without,) he married the young lady, and took his departure for Buda, where he was crowned.

About five years before this event, the Sultan, Mahomet the Second, had besieged and taken the city of Constantinople, which has ever since been the seat of the Ottoman government; and thus were terminated the last remains of the Greek empire, in the year 1453. The reign of Matthias Corvinus is considered a very brilliant period in the history of Hungary. This prince, like his father, was the terror of the Turks during his whole reign; and he took from them the province of Bosnia, besides obtaining several victories over them in other parts of the country. He also conquered Moravia and Silesia, and added to the glory of his name by giving encouragement to learning throughout his dominions. Matthias reigned thirty two years, and with him ended the prosperity of the country.

This great monarch was succeeded by Ladislaus the Sixth, who was also king of Bohemia; and in his reign the country was torn by faction, and ravaged by the Turks. He died in 1516; and the crown of Hungary descended to his son, Louis the Second. Louis was involved in wars with the Turks; and having led a great army against the Sultan, Soliman the Second, in 1526, he lost his life in the battle of Mohatz, in which a great part of the Hungarian nobility also perished.

Ferdinand the First, Emperor of Germany and Archduke of Austria, having married the sister of Louis, claimed the kingdom as his heir; but the Hungarians asserted their right to elect the sovereign, and John Zapolya, Vaivode of Transylvania, was chosen

king by the greater part of the people, or rather the nobility.

John, unable to cope with the emperor, called in the Turks to his assistance. These dangerous allies made themselves masters of a considerable portion of the country, and of the capital, Buda, of which they long retained possession. At length the contest was terminated by a treaty, which decided that John Zopolya should retain the crown for life, and that Ferdinand should be his successor. The people however still insisted on their right to elect their kings; and repeatedly opposed the claims of their imperial masters.

The dominion gained by the Turks in Hungary occasioned the continual wars between them and the German emperors, which have been already related. The Hungarians, not without reason, were much dissatisfied with the German government, and complained that all their rights, both civil and religious, were infringed on, that troops were stationed in the country, in opposition to the laws, and that they were burthened with all kinds of taxes. These complaints not being attended to, occasioned a general revolt, and the leader of it, Count Tekeli, made an alliance with the Turks; and even joined them in an invasion of the German states.

You have been told how they were defeated at Vienna by Sobieski, the king of Poland, after which the Germans quelled the insurrection, regained possession of Buda, and finally expelled the Turks from Hungary. Encouraged by these brilliant successes; the Emperor Leopold assembled the states of Hungary, at Presburg, and there demanded, that in consequence of the extraordinary efforts that had been made to get rid of the Turkish enemy, the kingdom of Hungary should be

declared hereditary in his family, which was agreed to, on condition that the ancient constitution of the country should not be altered, and that the Protestants should enjoy equal rights with the Catholics.

The Archduke Joseph, son of Leopold the First, was crowned at this diet in 1687, as first hereditary king of Hungary. In 1699, peace was concluded with the Turks, the limits between the two empires were fixed, and Count Tekeli, who during the war had constantly sided with the Ottoman Sultan, was allowed to remain in the Turkish territory.

New troubles however soon arose, for the Emperor Joseph did not keep the promises he had made respecting the liberties of the Hungarians, and a fresh insurrection broke out, headed by a celebrated patriot, Prince Ragotski, whose disinterested efforts to preserve the rights of his countrymen have been often and deservedly admired. This patriotic hero was Prince of Transylvania, and son in law of Count Tekeli, who had married his mother after she became a widow, and taken her with him into exile.

Ragotski belonged to an illustrious family, and inherited large possessions in Hungary, but he was suspected of disaffection to the government, and having been arrested by order of the court of Vienna, he was placed in confinement, but he contrived to escape, and reached, in disguise, the frontiers of Poland.

Having received promises of assistance from Louis the Fourteenth of France, he put himself at the head of a band of armed peasants, and commenced a war against the Imperialists; and although the crown of Poland was offered to his acceptance by Peter the Great, he was so anxious to free his country from the government of the

house of Austria, that he would not abandon the cause even to gain a throne.

In the meantime his vast estates were declared confiscated, and a price was set on his head, but he pursued his career, for some time, with success, gained several victories, and was declared Protector of Hungary. But the tide of fortune at length turned; the people began to desert him, and after a time, on the accession of Charles the Sixth to the imperial throne, a treaty was concluded between the Hungarians and the emperor, by which the former were confirmed in all their ancient privileges, a general amnesty was granted to all who had been concerned in the rebellion, and Ragotski received an offer of a free pardon, and the restitution of his confiscated estates, provided he would make submission to the Austrian government; but the proud patriot, disappointed at the failure of his enterprise, chose rather to retire into Turkey, where he passed the rest of his life in peaceful obscurity. From this time Hungary has formed a part of the Austrian dominions, and the present emperor of Austria, is also king of Hungary.

CUSTOMS AND MANNERS OF THE HUNGARIANS.

BEFORE the time of Maria Theresa, society in every part of Hungary was in a very rude state, but that wise

princess introduced many reforms, and induced the higher classes to adopt the language and habits of the Germans; but this improvement did not extend beyond the capital, and even now, in many parts of the country, the people are scarcely half civilised; they retain strong traces of their eastern origin, and are quite a distinct race from all other Europeans.

The feudal system still exists in Hungary to a considerable extent, all the peasantry being vassals or serfs of the nobles, and incapable of possessing land. No man can be a landholder who is not a noble of the country, but Hungarian nobles are very numerous, because all who are born of that class, are entitled to the rank of nobility, and as this privilege descends from generation to generation, the number of nobles is frequently increasing, and many of them are, in consequence, so poor, that they cannot afford to live much better than peasants; while others are extremely wealthy, and possess extensive lands and territories, in various parts of the country. The property of a rich magnate, often consists of thirty or forty different estates in various parts of the kingdom, which are entrusted to the management of stewards, and cultivated by peasants, who are serfs attached to the soil as they were in the feudal times, and who are transferred to a new owner, with the land, like the cattle and sheep that feed upon it. Several attempts have been made to ameliorate the condition of these poor creatures, with a view of emancipating them gradually from the degrading state of bondage in which they are held; but as the magnates would be great losers by freeing their peasants, they oppose every plan for that purpose.

The power of lords over their vassals was, in some degree, limited by Maria Theresa, who made laws to

determine what rents and services should be required of them. She fixed the number of days in a year on which they were to labour for their master, to 104, or to 52, if they furnished their own horses and oxen. The tribute to be paid consisted of four fowls, twelve eggs, and a certain quantity of butter, from each tenant; and there were other services, besides agricultural labour, which they were bound to perform, such as spinning wool, carrying loads of timber, mending the roads, keeping the fortifications in repair, and receiving into their houses such soldiers as might be quartered on them; besides all which, they were obliged to pay certain taxes to the government. Such, or nearly such, is the present condition of the Hungarian peasantry.

A law was made in 1835, by which masters were prohibited from inflicting punishment on their vassals at their own discretion, but allowing them to make their complaints to the magistrates, if any misdemeanours were committed; but this regulation is not very strictly attended to; and as the peasants do not exactly understand the nature of the law that was made in their favour, they believe, generally, that it was to emancipate them from slavery, and that they are now unlawfully held in bondage, so that they are very discontented, and it is sometimes necessary to station soldiers among them to prevent a revolt. The greatest landed proprietor in Hungary is Prince Esterhazy, who possesses immense estates, with a great number of villages upon them, and many thousands of vassals.

The villages in this country are, generally speaking, collections of mud cottages thatched with straw, detached from each other, and standing in two rows, with a wide muddy road between them, and each hovel has

usually a small farm yard attached to it, with a certain number of acres of land allotted to each one.

The appearance of the people is as wild as can well be imagined. They wear short brown coarse cloaks, with hose of the same colour and texture, broad hats, high and pointed, and their long shaggy hair hangs loosely over their shoulders. Their complexions are dark, and they have mostly a moustache on the upper lip; and they carry long poles pointed with iron. The women in the Sclovonian villages wear loose jackets of brown cloth, short woollen petticoats, coloured stockings, and each a handkerchief tied over the head. But there is a great variety of costume, as well as of dialect, among the peasants of Hungary, who appear to consist of several distinct races or tribes of people, all of whom preserve some of their ancient nationalities. In a general description, however, it is impossible to enter into all these peculiarities, which is a task belonging to the historian of a larger work than the present, therefore, all that can be further said with regard to the condition of the poor people in general, is, that they live in feudal servitude, are very poor, and inhabit villages on the lands of their masters.

The country gentry live something in the manner of the Highland lairds of Scotland, a hundred years since. Their hospitality to strangers is unbounded; and the dues paid by their tenantry supply them with ample means of furnishing a plentiful table. The peasants almost daily bring their tribute of fowls, milk, eggs, butter, &c.; for although each poor family has to supply these things once a year, they do not bring them all at once, but at intervals, as they are needed by the proprietor, each of whom, perhaps, has forty or fifty families on his estate.

The sale of wine and meat is a monopoly of the nobles, who set up innkeepers and butchers in the villages on their estates. These dare not sell any wine or meat but that belonging to the lord of the manor, who fixes the price himself, and allows the seller a tenth part of the profit. In some places, an arrangement is made between the lord and the publican, that the latter shall pay the former so much a year for the exclusive privilege of selling wine in some particular village; and as no other wine is then to be had, it is always very bad and very dear; because the vender knows that people must either drink it, and pay the price he chooses to demand, or go without it. Prince Esterhazy furnishes all his inns with his own wine.

The inns in Hungary have so little accommodation for travellers, that when a nobleman has occasion to perform a journey from one part of the country to another, he takes with him beds and bedding, a train of servants, and cooking utensils, so that if he stops to dine at an inn, his own cook prepares his dinner. Most of the innkeepers are Jews, who are preferred as men of business to any other people. Almost all the inland trade is in their hands, and is conducted in this manner. A Jew merchant goes round to those gentlemen whose business he is in the habit of transacting at certain seasons of the year, and makes a bargain to take all the wool, corn, wine, and other produce he may have to dispose of, at a price that is agreed upon between them. As soon as all these things are ready, they are sent to the merchant at the price stipulated, who has then to find his own market for them. The wool is generally of a very fine quality, most of that which is

called Saxony wool, and which is held in such high estimation, being brought from Hungary.

The timber trade constitutes a great portion of the commerce of Hungary, and is a monopoly of the Austrian government. In some parts of the country, all the common people are wood cutters, who labour under the superintendence of officers appointed to overlook them. The occupations of the peasantry, of course, differ with the various localities; in some parts, the country is covered with corn fields, or pastures; in others, with vineyards; while in many parts, flax and hemp grow in abundance; so that the people are employed either in ploughing, sowing, and reaping, tending sheep and cattle, dressing the vines, or raising flax, which the women make into linen, both for home consumption, and for sale in the Turkish provinces.

Though Hungary is an agricultural country, it has some few manufactures, as those of woollen and linen, and there are also a few paper-mills.

Within the last ten years, great improvements have been made in various parts of Hungary, by the patriotic exertions of a highly talented nobleman, Count Szechenyi, who came to England in the year 1830, to view some of the public works that were in progress, and to procure artists and mechanics capable of carrying into execution several designs he had formed for the benefit of his country. This gentleman took back with him some English engineers, and introduced steam navigation on the Danube, over which he has also constructed a bridge, to join the town of Pest to that of Buda, the first stationary bridge built across that part of the river; there having been, previously, only a bridge of boats. The count has also instituted reading rooms, clubs, and

coffee houses, in all the principal towns, in the manner of those in England; and has had several ball rooms built, all of which are steps towards refining the manners of a people who are not so far advanced in civilisation as their neighbours.

The habits and manners of the higher classes in Hungary, are very similar to those of the Germans, particularly in Presburg, which may be considered in the light of a German town. The gentlemen all smoke, and this is so general a custom, that pipes are brought in with the coffee after dinner, and are used without scruple, even in the drawing-room. About three o'clock is the fashionable hour for dinner, which is not served in the English manner, but the wine and fruits are placed on the table, and the meats are handed round by servants, in the splendid uniform of hussars. The fashion of being waited on by domestics in military costume, is so general in the houses of all persons of rank, that even a bishop has a smart moustached hussar behind his chair.

The Catholic priests in Hungary are so famous for their hospitality, that no traveller need be distressed for want of a supper or a bed, if he happen to be within reach of one of their habitations.

A breakfast in Hungary, is not as with us, a social meal, but consists merely of a cup of coffee, and a few sweet cakes, or a piece of dry bread, which every one takes without the ceremony of sitting down to table.

The dress of the Hungarian nobles is extremely elegant. Their vests are embroidered with gold; their mantles of velvet are lined with fur, and they wear military caps and swords. The ladies dress much in the style which happens to be fashionable at Paris or

Vienna; for among the great, the fashions of other countries are sure to find their way, and it is only among the peasants, that any thing like a national costume is to be met with. In Croatia, for instance, the young women wear a number of short petticoats one over another, with a stiff boddice; and the richer a damsel is, the more petticoats she wears. The peasants in the neighbourhood of Presburg, like those of Austria, are very smart with their blue pantaloons, embroidered jackets, and broad hats ornamented with, flowers and ribbons.

The country, for some distance around Presburg, abounds in market gardens, supplying the town with fruit and vegetables, which are carried to market by troops of country people, whose singular features and wild costume, tell that they are a different race of the human species from the citizens. The houses at Presburg, except those which have been recently built, are very inconvenient, having no passages; so that the rooms either open into one another, or are separated by a sort of yard or open court. They are without carpets, and very few are furnished with fire places, as the usual mode of warming apartments is by stoves. All new buildings are of stone, but in the old parts of the town, they are of wood. There are plenty of good shops in the city, and among others, those of the booksellers, where translations of the most popular English works may be obtained.

Pest is also a handsome town, with good paved streets, and houses built of white stone. It is a far better and more modern town than Buda, and contains a theatre and an university, where a thousand students are lodged and instructed gratuitously. When a fire happens in Pest, every one is obliged to give assistance;

and the service to be performed, is regulated in such a manner, that every man knows at once what he is to do; thus: the brewers and coachmen are to convey the engines to the spot; the butchers, hatters, and farriers, are to work them; the glaziers are to see that lights are placed in the windows of all the houses, to light the streets; some are required to take care of the property removed from such houses as may be in danger; others to fetch water; and, in short, all persons are obliged to exert themselves to put a stop to the calamity.

Pest and Buda are now considered as one city, forming the present capital of Hungary, and the residence of the Palatine, who represents the king, and presides in the Diet. The shopkeepers of Pest are constantly seen sitting at their doors, smoking, and the streets are filled with carriages, hackney-coaches, and pedestrians of various nations, as Jews, Armenians, Turks, Hungarians, and Germans, all walking about in the different costumes of their countries.

The carnival is held with much gaiety both in Pest and Buda, when there are masqued balls, and all kinds of festivities; and on Easter Monday, there is held on a height called the mountain of Blocksberg, a religious festival, which is something like a fair, the hill being covered with tables set out with cakes and ale; peasants being engaged in dancing to the sound of violins and bagpipes; and all the merriment going forward that is usual on such an occasion.

The country around Pest is a sandy plain, with little vegetation, and the sand is sometimes raised by the wind in such large quantities, that it rushes along the streets in a dense cloud, so that the inhabitants are obliged to keep their windows closed; and even then, it penetrates

every little crevice, and does great injury to the furniture. Beyond the plain, is an extensive wine district, and one of the prettiest sights witnessed in Hungary, is the gathering in of the vintage, when the peasants decked in their holiday attire, their heads crowned with vine leaves, flowers, and ribbons, walk round the town in procession, accompanied by a band of music, and carrying garlands, from which bunches of grapes are suspended. Having made the circuit of the town, they return to the house of the lord of the vineyard, who provides a feast for them, and they finish the day with a dance.

Hungary has been always infested with banditti, which is scarcely to be wondered at, in a country where the forests and mountains afford them security, and the means of subsistence among the poor are so scarce, that men who feed pigs on the commons in the summer, have no way of living in the winter but by robbery. There was a famous bandit chief, a few years ago, named Sobri, who was known all over the country by his daring exploits, and bore much the same sort of character as our English Robin Hood; but he is now dead, and his bold band is dispersed; but it is quite as well for travellers in this country to be provided against a rencontre with gentlemen of this profession. Travelling is very disagreeable in Hungary, as in most parts, there is no conveyance to be had but a cart or light waggon, drawn by miserable horses, which are harnessed with thin cord. The horses are furnished by the peasantry, under the regulation of the government, as in Sweden; but as these men have very little interest in obliging the traveller, they are often very slow in getting their horses ready for service.

The scenery in many parts of Hungary is extremely

picturesque, as the remains of old fortified towns, still bearing traces of the ravages of the Turks, are met with in every direction; and most of the eminences are crowned with the ruins of ancient baronial castles, to each of which some romantic legend is attached, that is sure to be told to every stranger; and most of these tales relate to the Holy wars.

There is a territory on the frontiers of Turkey, extending about five hundred miles, but in no part more than thirty miles in breadth, which forms a barrier between Turkey and Hungary, and where the people are governed entirely by military laws. In this border land, all the men are soldiers, and every officer is a magistrate. The whole district is divided into fourteen counties, and over each of these is a governor, who is a military officer, and has authority to hold courts of justice, and administer the laws, within his own district.

All this land belongs to the crown, and the families living on it, are consequently vassals of the emperor; but every man has a farm of his own, which supplies him and his family with all the necessaries of life, and instead of paying rent for it, he must help to cultivate the lands of the officers, and to keep the roads and fortifications in repair. The women manufacture their cloth and linen from the wool of their sheep, and the flax which they grow, and as they make all the wearing apparel, and have plenty of meat, poultry, milk, and butter, and grow their own corn, they have little need of money, which is scarcely ever used among them. All the boys are taught military exercises, and grow up good soldiers, as well as agriculturists. As soon as they reach the age of eighteen, they are liable to be called on to serve in the Austrian armies, whenever their

services may be required, until they are thirty-six; after which time, they remain at home to defend the frontiers; and the officers, whose duty it is to see that they are always in readiness, in case of any sudden emergency, frequently visit each house, and acquaint themselves with the proceedings of all the inmates; so that every individual in this community is obliged to be orderly and well conducted, as any irregularity is sure to be discovered and punished. This system was invented by Prince Eugene, at a time when the Turks and Austrians were perpetually at war.

All along the line, at regular distances, there are fortified posts, where guards are always stationed, the men taking it by turns to perform this service, which is called the outpost duty; while those who are not so engaged, pursue their ordinary labours like other peasants. The emperor of Austria has thus a large army at his command, without the expense of maintaining it; and besides these frontier regiments, every landed proprietor is obliged to furnish a certain number of soldiers for the Austrian service, who remain in the army fourteen years; when they are at liberty to return to their villages if they choose to do so. Then the free cities are obliged to furnish recruits, and the citizens, although they are not in vassalage, are liable to have soldiers quartered in their houses; and they also pay taxes which the nobles do not.

There is a race of people in Hungary, called Torpindas, whose origin is supposed to be very ancient, although unknown, and who live in settlements like the gypsies. Here and there, in some sequestered glen, among the hills, may be found a colony of these strange beings, as wild in their habits and appearance,

as their rude dwelling places. The men of these tribes employ the winter in making nails, or small articles in brass, and when the summer approaches, they sow their seed, and set forth on their wanderings into far countries, to find a market for their wares, leaving the women and children in the settlements, to which they return in time to gather in their little harvest. These people usually pay tribute to some lord, for permission to reside within the precincts of his domain, where they live independent of any government, the affairs of each village or settlement being managed by the elders of the tribe. Tornindas, as well as gypsies, are found both in Hungary and Bohemia.

PRESENT STATE OF BOHEMIA.

IN Bohemia, the people enjoy more freedom than in Hungary, because the nobles have not so many feudal rights, and are more in subjection to the crown. Slowly, therefore, but surely, the condition of the peasantry has, for some years, been improving, and although a large portion of the population are still in vassalage, the government has done much towards their emancipation, by increasing their privileges, and making them less dependent on their feudal lords.

Bohemia is a fine fertile country, producing abundance of grain of all sorts, as well as flax, and the finest hops in Europe. It possesses some extensive forests and

considerable lakes, and is surrounded on all sides by ranges of mountains, which contain silver, copper, iron, tin, coal, and other minerals. The country is divided into sixteen circles, governed by officers appointed annually, and has many good towns beside Prague, which is, however, the only great commercial city in the kingdom.

With regard to manufactures, Bohemia is far superior to Hungary; for besides its glass, which has long been esteemed the best in the world, it manufactures woollen cloth, linen, cotton, lace, cambric, hats, paper, china, earthenware, and numerous other articles. Most of its manufactories are in a very flourishing condition, and it also possesses large iron foundries in the mining districts. In the mountainous parts of the country, the people are very generally spinners and weavers, working on their own account; and some years ago, they used to make cottons much superior in quality to those of Manchester and Glasgow; but since the manufactures of those towns have so materially improved, the Bohemians have not been able to obtain so good a price for their cottons as they formerly did.

A great portion of the land in Bohemia consists of manors or lordships, a part of each domain being occupied by the proprietor himself, and the rest let out in farms of various sizes to the peasants, who, in place of rent, give a tenth part of the produce, and are bound to perform certain services for the lord of the manor, who is usually entitled to three days labour in the week from each tenant, or one day with cattle or horses.

The dwelling of a Bohemian gentleman is termed a schloss or fortress; and is sometimes a castle, sometimes a large ill-formed house, generally standing in the middle of a field or a village, unadorned with either park or

gardens, but often having a crop of wheat or rye growing up to its very walls; however, the residences of some of the chief nobles have parks attached to them. The peasants do not, in general, reside on the country lands, but live together in villages, under the jurisdiction of magistrates, elected by themselves, but whose election must be confirmed by the lord of the manor before they can enter upon their office.

Some of the villages and small towns, both in Bohemia, and the feudal estates in other parts of the Austrian dominions, have charters from the crown, by which they are privileged to hold markets, and have other rights, that make them less dependent on their lords; but as these charters are only granted to towns of a certain size, some of the nobles take care to keep their towns and villages under that size, by refusing to let their peasants build more houses. One great reason of the improving state of the peasantry of Bohemia is, that the nobles of that country pay taxes, which in Hungary they do not; in the latter country, therefore, the whole burthen of taxation falls upon the lower classes, and necessarily keeps them extremely poor.

Education is provided for in Bohemia, by the establishment of parish schools, to which the peasantry are obliged by law to send their children, between the ages of six and twelve, each paying a small sum weekly to the schoolmaster or mistress, who is allowed a house and garden by the government, free of rent or taxes, with a trifling salary.

The religion of Bohemia is the Catholic, to the exclusion of all other sects, and there are several convents at Prague, and in various parts of the country. Religious processions are very frequent among the pea-

santry, who on saints' days, proceed in companies to pay their devotions at some particular shrine; and on these occasions, a priest always walks before them with a crucifix uplifted.

The houses in the villages are low, dark, and built of wood; but they are generally spacious, in good repair, and most of them have glazed windows. It is very usual for the whole family, or for ten or twelve labouring men at a small inn, to eat their dinner out of a large brown pan, round which they stand or sit, each with a wooden spoon, which is plunged in turn into the dish. The Bohemian peasantry drink a great deal of beer, which is the favourite beverage in all the German states, and eat coarse rye bread, rye being more plentiful than wheat in Bohemia.

All the people are excessively fond of dancing, from the noble to the meanest peasant; the very cowherds may be seen waltzing to the music of their own voices; and among the middle classes in the towns, it is customary to have balls in the day-time, and all over the country there are bands of itinerant musicians, to aid the villagers in their holiday festivities. These musicians dress themselves in a kind of military costume, generally somewhat faded and dirty, but make a very gay appearance with their swords and feathers, and are always good performers; for the Bohemians are a musical people, the very lowest classes exhibit great sensibility to the powers of harmony, and often sing the finest airs of Mozart and other celebrated composers, with much taste. The nobility have concerts at their own houses, and the opera at Prague is generally well attended.

Mozart was a great favourite with the emperor, Joseph the Second, who allowed him a salary, though not a very

handsome one, for presiding at his concerts. Frederick the Great of Prussia, who was also an enthusiast in music, invited this talented musician to the court of Berlin, offering him a much more liberal remuneration than he received from his imperial patron; but while Mozart was hesitating whether he should accept the flattering invitation of his Prussian majesty, the emperor sent for him, and said in a kind but rather reproachful tone, "Mozart, I hear you are going to leave me." The amiable musician thought no more of his own pecuniary advantages, but replied, with tears in his eyes, "No, your majesty, I will never leave you." His celebrated opera of *Don Giovanni* was first performed at Prague.

There are no people in the world who are fonder of marvellous tales than the Bohemians. The common people listen with rapture to old legends relating to the warlike deeds of their ancestors, and know by heart the histories of all their first dukes; and many of them believe that some of these ancient warriors will, at a future day, awake from their long sleep, to deliver their country from foreign dominion.

The gypsy settlements in Bohemia are very similar to those of the Torpindas in Hungary, and the two tribes resemble each other so closely in their general habits, their vagrant kind of life, and their swarthy complexions, that all the difference seems to consist in their supposed origin.

On the whole, Bohemia enjoys many greater advantages than Hungary, as the country is more populous, and has a greater number of villages, and a larger portion of manufacturers among its people, while its labouring classes enjoy altogether a greater share of freedom and prosperity.

PRESENT STATE OF AUSTRIA.

THE social habits of the Germans vary materially in different parts of the country, but the best and happiest state of society is to be found in Austria, where every thing seems to prosper, notwithstanding its despotic government. Commerce, agriculture, arts and manufactures, all flourish in the Austrian dominions, where there appears to be more of content, and less of real poverty, than in any other part of Europe.

The constant aim of the Austrian government is to place as much happiness as possible within the reach of the whole population, and for this end, ample means are provided for the enjoyment of all classes, while none need be distressed for want of employment. Every one who visits Austria, speaks of the happy condition of the peasantry, their comfortable dwellings, their neat appearance, and their plentiful boards; and in no other country are the labouring people more industrious, or more orderly in their general conduct.

With regard to society among the higher and middle ranks, Vienna differs but very little from London or Paris. The Viennese are well-bred, accomplished, and delight in music, which forms an essential part of the education of all young people, not only in the capital, but in every part of Germany, and may be called the passion of the Germans.

The streets of Vienna are narrow, and crowded both

with carriages and pedestrians. The shops are as attractive as those of London, and there are many magnificent houses belonging to the nobility, who reside generally within the city, the suburbs being chiefly occupied by manufacturers. In most of the houses there are, however, three things wanting, which in England are essential to comfort, and these are, fire places, carpets, and good beds. The rooms are heated by stoves, the floors parquettued and polished with wax, and all the Germans sleep in wooden cribs, either between two feather beds, or on a mattress with a feather bed upon them, by way of coverlet, which, to those who are not used to it, must be a most uneasy mode of sleeping.

The Germans do not commence the day with a substantial breakfast, but are satisfied with a cup of coffee and a small piece of dry bread, which are carried into each person's apartment. The first actual meal is a luncheon, which is taken about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and the most usual dinner hour is three; for as all public amusements begin earlier in Germany than they do with us, those who wish to partake of them must dine at an early hour.

The carnival is a season of festivity at Vienna; and the anniversary of the defeat of the Turks by Sobieski, is commemorated with great rejoicings, and is a grand holiday among the common people. On this occasion the imperial family and all the chief nobility of both sexes walk in procession to hear mass in the cathedral of St. Stephen, attended by bands of music, and followed by a train of bishops, priests, and monks; when the streets are lined with guards, and the windows thronged with people in full dress.

The great public promenade at Vienna, is the Prater,

which is crowded every evening, during the summer, with people of all ranks, from the emperor to the humblest of the citizens. The Prater is a park, or rather part of a forest, formed into several broad avenues, which are planted on each side with oaks, chesnut trees, and acacias. Bands of music are stationed there every evening, and on each side of the avenues are refreshment rooms, and shows of various kinds, for the amusement of children. The Prater is the general resort in the evening, and is then thronged with carriages and pedestrians, and presents a very gay scene.

On Sundays, according to the custom of Catholic countries, all public places of amusement are open, and there are ball-rooms, and concert-rooms, in the suburbs of Vienna, which are much frequented by the small tradespeople and mechanics, who are all lovers of waltzing and music. The higher classes among the citizens, have balls and concerts at their own houses, or go to the opera on Sunday evenings; but all persons, high or low, after they have performed their religious duties, devote the remainder of the day to amusement of some kind.

The universal contentment that prevails among the mass of the people of Austria may be in some measure owing to the system of public instruction, which is so conducted, that every one is taught to respect the government under which he is to live, and receives an education suitable to the station he is to occupy in society.

The Austrian farmers are extremely kindhearted and hospitable. Their houses, which are neat, comfortable, and well furnished, are usually two stories high, roofed with tiles, and coloured white, and are ornamented with small gardens in front. Their tables are plentifully

supplied, and they drink a light Rhenish wine, of which a vast quantity is made in Austria, almost all the farmers being vine growers.

There is an annual fête held in Austria, called the church wake, which is looked forward to with great delight, by all the young men and maidens of the different villages. On this joyous occasion, the tallest tree in some neighbouring forest is cut down to be made into a pole, and being stripped of its bark, and planed, it is crowned with the top of a fir-tree, and decorated with ribbons, garlands, fruits, and flagons of wine. This gay emblem of country life is set up in a meadow, and a bower of branches, hung with coloured festoons, is formed around it.

The festival is held on a Sunday, when all the villagers, in their best attire, go to church, after which every farm-house is filled with visitors, who partake of a plentiful dinner, and repair a second time to mass, which is over about three o'clock. Then the young men, in the very picturesque costume worn by the Austrian peasantry, call at every house in the village to conduct the gaily dressed maidens to the bower they have constructed, where a band is stationed, consisting of ten or twelve excellent musicians. If the lord of the manor, or any distinguished persons happen to be present, they are requested to open the ball, which they never refuse to do. The waltzing then begins, and lasts till about eleven o'clock at night, by the aid of lamps, suspended from the trees and lighted at sunset. These rural fêtes are rendered more attractive by the pretty dresses of the village maidens, whose broad hats are gaily ornamented with ribbons and flowers, and whose bright blue stockings, and short petticoats,

are trimmed with showy ribbons; the dresses of the young men are not less picturesque, as their jackets are handsomely embroidered, and they also wear the large hat, which is so becoming.

Education in Austria is entirely under the direction of the government. From the prince to the peasant, every one is instructed according to a system regulated by the state, and only such books are used, either in the public schools, or by private tutors, as are authorised by the emperor; and no one who has not been educated within the realm, is privileged to hold any official situation, to carry on any trade, or even to work as a mechanic. Every parish has a school for the instruction of the children of the lower orders in reading, writing, and arithmetic; and there are also upper schools for the sons of tradesmen, who receive such an education as is best calculated to fit them for the occupations for which they are intended.

In all the large towns, there are commercial academies for those who are to be merchants or agriculturists; and there are also universities for the study of the learned professions. All the instruction given is gratuitous, the professors being paid by government, chiefly out of a fund that was raised by the suppression of monasteries, in the time of Joseph the Second, called the educational fund. The same care is taken to provide for the education of females of all classes, and the higher seminaries are generally conducted by nuns.

There are a few private schools in the Austrian states, but they are subjected to very strict rules; nor are the teachers at liberty to use any books but those authorised by the government; and this regulation is also enforced with regard to private tuition.

The universities of Austria are generally better conducted than those of the rest of Germany, and the students are remarkable for their orderly behaviour; a circumstance that may perhaps, in some measure, be owing to the half-yearly examinations that take place, when a committee appointed by the emperor to superintend all affairs connected with the schools, receive a report of the general behaviour and improvement of the students; and as this report may be laid before the emperor, it cannot fail to act as a check upon their conduct, and a stimulus to their industry.

The system of public education does not extend to Hungary, nor to the feudal domains in Bohemia and Moravia, although it is pursued in the free towns of the latter countries, and some of the villages. The reason of this is, that the feudal proprietors are of opinion that education would only tend to make the peasants discontented with their lot, and therefore is not desirable; but this is a question that admits of much argument on the other side, as many persons think that ignorance cannot be good, under any circumstances.

Austria abounds in charitable institutions, which have for the most part been established since the suppression of so many of the monasteries by Joseph the Second, when it became necessary to make some provision for the destitute, who used to receive aid at the gates of the numerous cloisters. Poor-houses have therefore been instituted, one in each district, which is supported by voluntary contributions, by fines for trifling offences, by a small tax on all goods sold by auction, and by a collection of money, provisions, and clothing, which is made every month from house to house. There also are great numbers of alms-houses and hospitals for the

sick; and in almost every town there is a benevolent society, formed of the wealthiest inhabitants, for the purpose of affording private aid to distressed persons, who have filled a station in life that makes them shrink from soliciting charity.

The labouring classes among the Austrians are sober, honest, and industrious. A traveller who lately visited Hungary, enquired at an inn yard, whether his luggage was safe there. "O, yes, sir," was the reply, "they are all Germans here."

In every part of the Austrian dominions, persons may hold landed property, without any distinction with regard to religion, or station in life. Jews and Christians, noblemen and peasants, all are equally eligible to become landed proprietors; and females also may hold land independent of their husbands; for when a woman marries, in Austria, her property does not become the property of her husband, but is as much her own as it was before her marriage.

The nobility of Austria consists of several classes, as princes, counts, barons, and the untitled nobles, who are similar to our English gentlemen or esquires; but the emperor can bestow titles at his pleasure; and thus many wealthy bankers, merchants, and manufacturers, some of them of the Jewish religion, have obtained titles of nobility.

The royal family of Austria are distinguished by their unostentatious manners, their domestic habits, and the personal exertions they make to promote the welfare of all classes of their subjects. They are the founders and liberal patrons of literary institutions, agricultural societies, and arts and sciences of every kind. On certain days, the emperor gives audience to any of his subjects

who may have complaints to address to him; a custom that made the late emperor extremely popular; and on these days, it is not at all uncommon for a farmer who lives at a great distance, to jump into his cart, and drive away to the capital, to make known to the emperor some injustice which he has experienced; and if the case be really one in which the complainant has suffered wrong, the grievance is sure to be redressed. Instances have even been known of simple-hearted countrymen presenting themselves before the sovereign to ask advice concerning their own affairs, as in the purchase of land, the marriage of a daughter, or any other matter of great importance to themselves; nor has the good sovereign ever refused to listen to such applications, or to give his counsel in the kindest manner.

Yet, with all this, the Austrian government is very arbitrary; for instance, no subject, let his rank be what it may, has the liberty of leaving the kingdom without a passport, which, in some cases, is refused; so that an Austrian gentleman cannot take a trip to England or France, whenever he pleases, but must first have the emperor's permission; which, as I said before, is not always granted.

The emperor also monopolizes some of the most lucrative branches of trade, particularly the sale of tobacco and salt, which can only be sold, at a fixed price, by persons appointed by government. The monopoly of tobacco does not extend to Hungary, where that plant is extensively cultivated; but in the Austrian part of Germany, it may only be manufactured at the royal factories, and sold by the government agents, who are established in every town and village. Smoking is a universal habit, the sale of tobacco, therefore, yields an immense revenue; but

as its growth and manufacture are free in Hungary, large quantities are smuggled into Austria from that country. The monopoly of salt extends to every part of the Austrian dominions, and is a tax which is more seriously felt by the poorer classes, than that of tobacco, because salt is an absolute necessary of life, whereas tobacco is a mere luxury. Salt is obtained mostly from the mines in Galicia, Transylvania, northern Hungary, and the Tyrol, which all belong to the crown; and indeed, whenever a mine of rock salt is discovered, it immediately becomes royal property.

Within the last twenty years, agriculture has greatly improved in all the Austrian states, and the rearing of sheep is very carefully attended to; which is the reason that the wool of Saxony, Hungary, and other parts of Germany, is so fine, and makes such beautiful cloth.

The formation of railroads in Germany has been of considerable advantage to the different states, by facilitating the intercourse between them. The first railway opened, was from Lintz, the capital of Upper Austria, to Budweiss, a city of Bohemia, on the river Moldau, and its object was to form a communication between the Danube and the Elbe. A second extends from Vienna to Raab, the great corn market of Hungary; and others are finished, or are in progress towards completion. The Austrians have some very clever engineers, and there is an academy at Vienna, expressly for the education of young men intended for the engineering profession.

Hamburg is still, as it always has been, the principal trading town in Germany, and is the same old-fashioned city, which I described as existing in the reign of Maria Theresa, and the inhabitants are still as fond of their

little formal gardens, as they were in the last century. Hamburg ranks among the first commercial cities in Europe; its whole population are actively engaged in trade, and connected with shipping. A great many English merchants, with their families, reside there; and owing to that circumstance, and the constant intercourse with this country, the English language is very generally spoken in Hamburg.

PRESENT STATE OF SAXONY.

THE state of society in Saxony has been greatly altered since the revolution in 1830, when the present free constitution was granted to the people. All the Saxon towns are now municipalities, that is, they elect magistrates, and make their own laws for their internal government. Municipal laws are distinct from the general laws of a kingdom or empire. They are made by the inhabitants, or by the magistrates, of a town or village, for the regulation of that particular place, without reference to any other, and should be beneficial to the people, inasmuch as they are adapted to the local circumstances of the town or village for which they are made, and for which the general laws of the empire cannot always provide.

The middle classes in Saxony are not fond of display, either in their houses, equipages, or their tables. Many families, as in Paris and Edinburgh, instead of occupying

a whole house, live in flats, that is, on floors, each of which usually contains a number of apartments. The rooms are plainly furnished, and never carpeted; which, to English travellers, who have been accustomed to the luxury of good warm carpets, has a very comfortless appearance.

The Saxons keep very few servants, and never give great entertainments, although they are as fond of society as any other people in the world; but they meet together, not so much for the purpose of eating and drinking, as for that of enjoying the more refined pleasures of music and dancing, in which they all excel.

Music is cultivated in Germany with a degree of enthusiasm unknown elsewhere; almost every individual plays on some instrument, and nearly every family belongs to some musical society, the members of which meet at each other's houses in the evening, to play in concert; and as these soirées involve no expense, they may be enjoyed by every one without inconvenience. Even at a ball, the only refreshments expected, are a cup of coffee, or a glass of lemonade.

Dresden is the principal town of Saxony, and there the distinctions between the different grades of society are very punctiliously observed, none associating with persons inferior to themselves in point of rank. Dresden is the residence of the king, and as a matter of course, of all the fashionables of Saxony. It is full of good shops of every description, which are well frequented during the fashionable season; but from May to October the town is very dull, as all who can afford to do so, leave it, that they may repair to the watering places, or their country residences.

The high roads in Saxony are all very good, and rail-road travelling is becoming general there as well as in Austria. All the land in Saxony is cultivated, so that there are no commons or waste grounds, and the fine fruit trees that often border both sides of the highway are private property, and are watched all day when the fruit is ripe, that it may not be touched by the passers by.

The Saxons are not so lively a people as the Austrians, compared with whom they would appear rather slower and more deliberate in their movements. The practice of smoking is universal among them; and in society, the men generally separate themselves from the women, who may be seen chatting together in little groups at one end of the room, while the male part of the company are enjoying their cigars and conversation at the other; and the same fashion prevails in the public gardens, the favourite resort of all the people of Dresden, on a Sunday evening, where the ladies walk about, enjoying the music, unattended by their cigar-loving knights, who, however, in thus conforming to the custom of their country, are not, as we may suppose, deficient in gallantry, upon other occasions.

The Sabbath is not very strictly observed in Saxony, as the people not only amuse themselves on that day, but the lower orders frequently pursue their usual avocations. Some of the games of the country people resemble those of England in the olden time, particularly the shooting matches, which are held at stated seasons, when the villagers and townspeople assemble to try their skill at shooting at a wooden popinjay, suspended in the air. The shooters are generally dressed in some fantastic manner, and walk in procession, preceded by a

band of music, to the place appointed for the trial; and he who exhibits the greatest dexterity is called captain for the day, which always concludes with a dance, either in a temporary booth, erected for the occasion, or in the ball-room of the nearest inn.

The peasant women of Saxony, like those of Bohemia, are accustomed to hard labour, such as digging in the fields, and carrying very heavy loads; and being exposed to all kinds of weather, they are seldom good-looking; but the females of the higher classes are generally remarkable for the beauty of their complexions, and their fair hair.

In Saxony, the chief institution for education is the university of Leipsic, but there are common free schools for the poor, in every parish, and several large schools for the higher branches of education, founded out of the funds of suppressed monasteries. The nobles of Saxony still enjoy some feudal privileges, and there are still serfs on the feudal domains, in some parts of the country. The manufactures are very considerable; linen weaving, and cotton spinning, are carried on in nearly all the villages, and woollen stuffs are manufactured in almost every town.

A universal custom prevails in Saxony, which is also very general in Austria and many other parts of Germany, for young men, after they have served their apprenticeships to their several trades, to go on their travels, for the purpose of learning something of the commerce and manufactures of other countries, and of gaining improvement in their own particular branches of art. A young German mechanic, before he thinks of beginning business for himself, sets forth on foot from his native village, with a pack at his back, filled with

articles of merchandise, the produce of his own industry, on the sale of which he depends, as a provision for his journey. Now and then he obtains employment for a few days in the towns and villages through which he passes, and is thus supplied with small sums of money which enable him to proceed.

These travelling mechanics are constantly met with in Bohemia, the different German states, Denmark, France, and even in Italy; and after having spent two or three years thus in the pursuit of knowledge, they return to their native villages with the store of information they have acquired, and are thus better fitted for commencing business on their own account. This practice is common in every part of Germany, and German tradesmen and mechanics have consequently a more practical knowledge of trade generally, than most people of the same class in other countries.

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